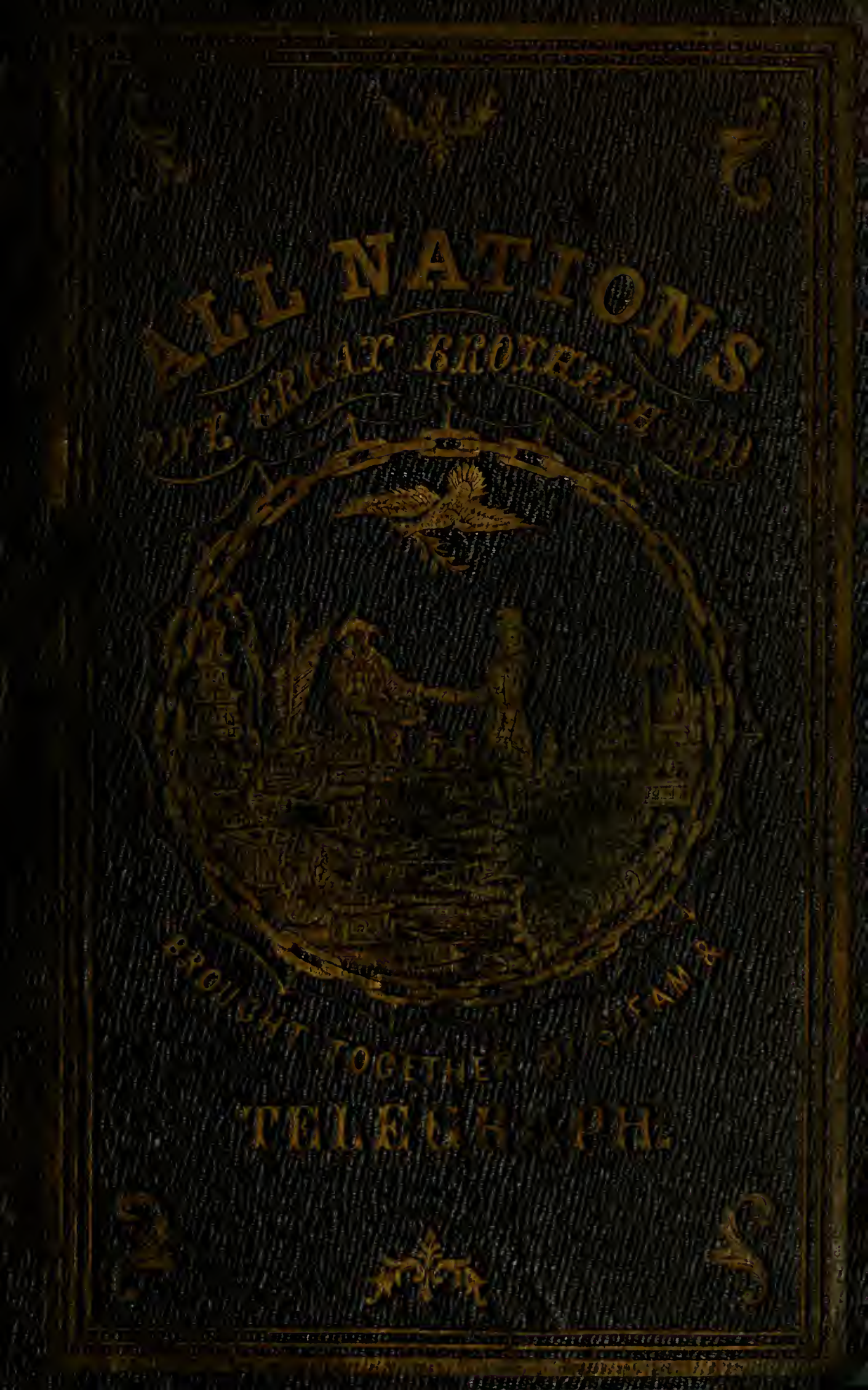
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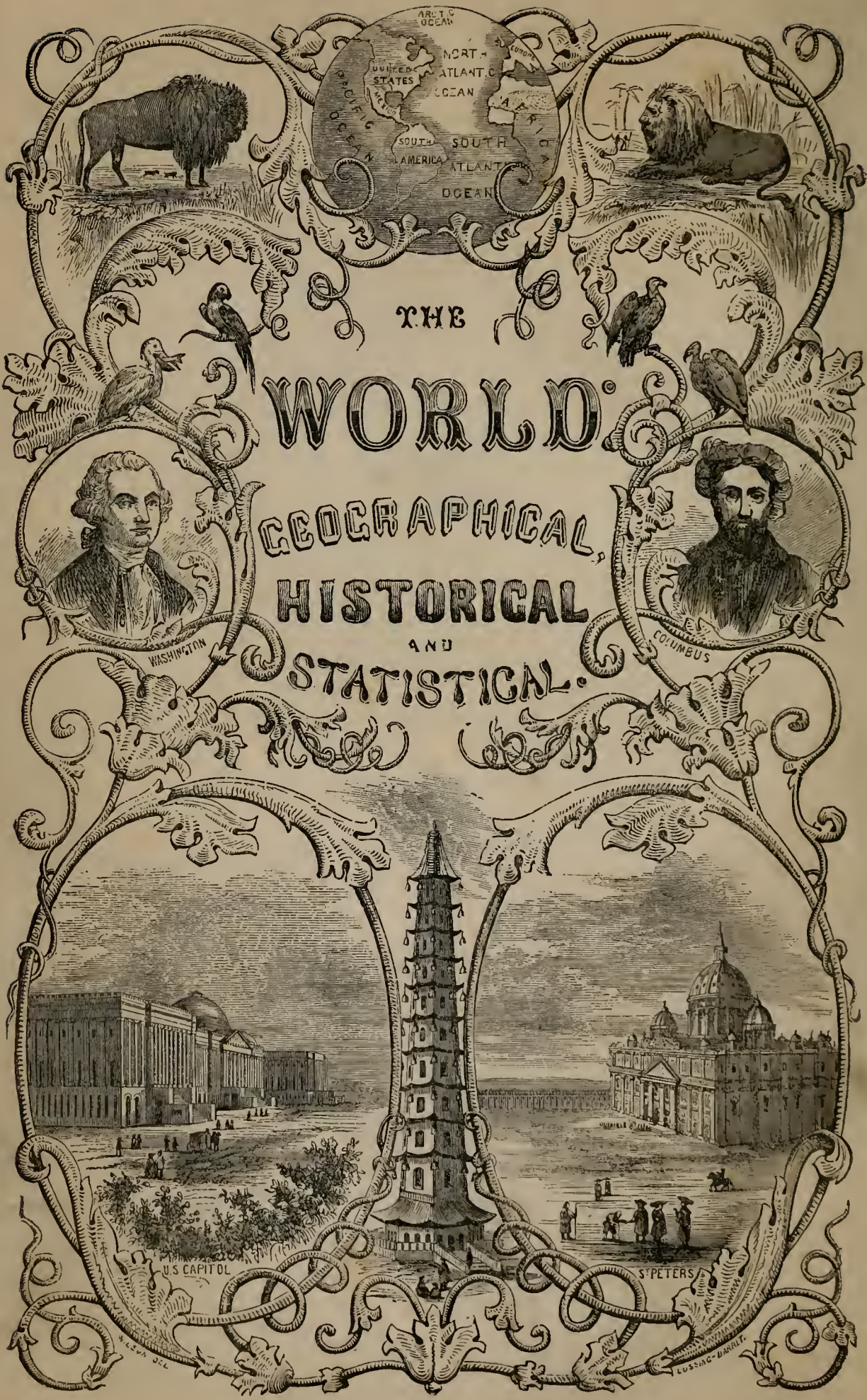
ARCTIC OCEAN
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THE
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GEOGRAPHICAL,
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AND
STATISTICAL.
WASHINGTON
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THE

WORLD

GEOGRAPHICAL, HISTORICAL,

AND

STATISTICAL;

CONTAINING A

DESCRIPTION OF THE SEVERAL CONTINENTS, EMPIRES, REPUBLICS, KINGDOMS, AND ISLANDS ON THE GLOBE,

EXHIBITING THE PECULIARITIES OF

THEIR PHYSICAL ASPECT, MOUNTAINS, RIVERS, LAKES, CLIMATE, PRODUCTIVE AND MANUFACTURING RESOURCES, COMMERCE, CHIEF TOWNS, GOVERNMENT, EDUCATION, GENERAL HISTORY, ETC.

By CHARLES C. SAVAGE,

AUTHOR OF "PICTORIAL BIOGRAPHY, OR MEMOIRS OF THE GREAT AND THE GOOD," ETC.

ILLUSTRATED

WITH ENGRAVINGS AND MAPS OF COUNTRIES, STATES, AND CITIES.

NEW YORK:

PUBLISHED BY PHELPS, FANNING & CO.,

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PREFACE.

FIVE and a half centuries since, the remarkable properties of the magnetic needle were discovered. Slight and unimportant as this event seemed when abstractly viewed, it was fraught with most momentous results in the world's history. Till then, a knowledge of the earth had been limited to imperfect and crude ideas of portions of the eastern hemisphere; while beyond this all was conjectural or wildly speculative. In 1302, however, a new era—second only to that which in the succeeding century followed the invention of printing—dawned upon mankind. A spirit of geographical and scientific research had been, it is true, already excited by the Crusades, but it needed this discovery to give it scope and practical direction. With the Mariner's Compass as an unerring guide, the hitherto timid navigator was enabled to push his bark with confidence beyond the sight of land, and into unknown seas. The rays of truth began to dissipate the mists of error and prejudice—the slumber of ages was broken, and mankind awoke to the contemplation of the earth—to the importance of learning its true nature and extent. But for nearly two centuries their explorations were confined to the eastern hemisphere. The existence of another continent lying far beyond the reach of the hitherto most adventurous navigator, had not yet entered the thoughts of any. That conception was reserved for the philosophic, far-reaching mind of Christopher Columbus, who, in 1492, in spite of the most formidable objections that could be arrayed against his theory, boldly launched his vessels upon the ocean, and set sail with a perfect confidence upon the voyage, which resulted in the discovery of a NEW WORLD—where now, though scarce three and a half centuries have elapsed since the illustrious Genoese first set foot upon its borders, exists one of the freest, most enlightened, enterprising and powerful nations on the earth—whose territory extends from ocean to ocean, and the sails of whose commerce whiten every sea. When Columbus had led the way, other adventurers emulously entered on the career of exploration and discovery, the earth was circumnavigated, new islands, and bays, and seas, were made known, until, from the accumulated results of national and individual effort, there remains scarce a nook or corner on the entire globe which has not been penetrated, its history obtained, and its resources developed and appropriated to the service of mankind and the benefit of science.

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Much of the knowledge thus obtained, from being published in too voluminous and costly forms, has remained a dead letter to the mass of readers. To obviate this difficulty—to abridge from these more expensive works—to condense and bring the choicest and most interesting facts, connected with the history and geography of all nations, within the covers of a single volume and its cost within the means of the humblest citizen—has been the controlling motive in the preparation of this volume. To do this, to reconcile conflicting statements in works which were referred to for information—and to seize upon those prominent points which should best present the characteristics of each country, and daguerreotype for the reader's eye their past and present condition —and to give full descriptions of the localities, boundaries, areas, latitude and longitude, physical aspect, mountains, seas, rivers, lakes, bays, islands, soil, climate, chief towns, mineral, agricultural, and manufacturing resources, railroads and canals, commerce, state of education, population, form and details of government, history, and rulers, of each nation of the globe, without swelling the volume to an unwieldy size, has been a laborious task, and one requiring the most patient investigation.

In illustrating the volume, regard has been had to utility, the editor deeming his space too valuable to be appropriated to engravings that possessed no higher merit than the ad-captandum one of mere ornament. The Maps of Continents, States, Cities, &c., which have been inserted, will be found extremely serviceable in facilitating a proper understanding of the letter-press descriptions. And it may not be deemed improper here to add that they have been prepared at far greater expense than would have attended the insertion of twice their number of the common pictorial embellishments.

It will be perceived that a large space has been appropriated to the geographical and historical details of the United States, both as a nation and as individual states. For this no apology is deemed necessary. For while ignorance of the leading historical incidents and geographical features of his own country, is utterly unpardonable in an American, whose facilities for information in that respect are so great—the paramount interest attaching to everything relating to one's native land, would alone vindicate the room devoted to that portion of the work—

"The shuddering tenant of the frigid zone
Proudly proclaims the happiest land his own;
The naked negro, panting on the line,
Boasts of his golden sands and palmy wine;
Such is the patriot's boast where'er we roam,
His first, best country ever is his own."

New York, *April* 20*th*, 1853,

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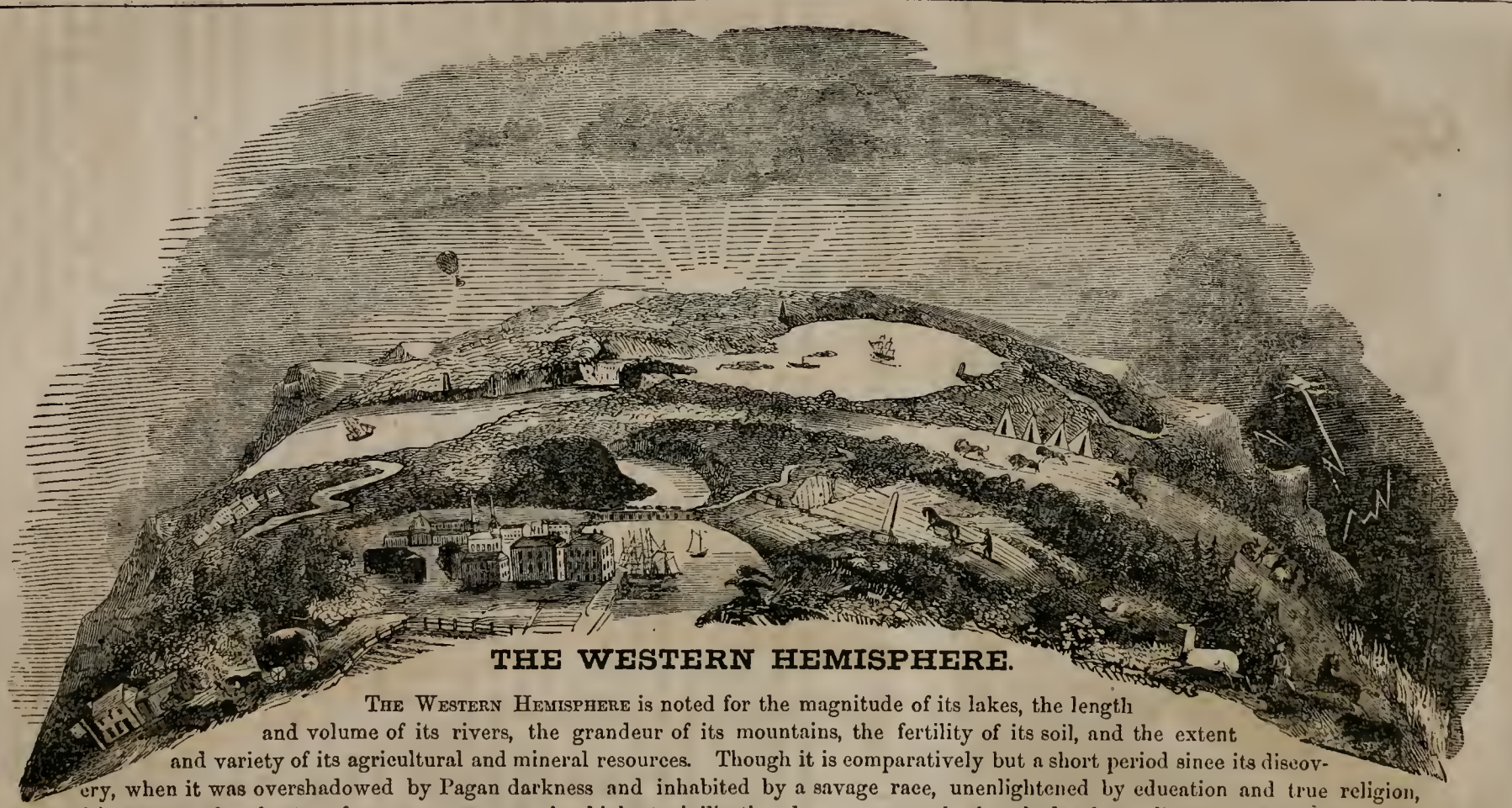
DESCRIPTION OF THE EARTH.

At how early a period in the world's history the earth was first conjectured or believed to be a spherical body can not now be ascertained. The ancient Chaldeans and Egyptians are supposed to have possessed a knowledge of its rotundity, from their ability to calculate eclipses of the moon, and the Greek philosophers had some imperfect ideas in regard to it; but for many centuries the most erroneous notions prevailed in respect to the earth's true form. In Europe, during the greater part of that period of history called the middle or dark ages, the earth was conceived to be a flat surface, extending on every side till it met the heavens. The overthrow of this popular opinion was rendered the more difficult, by the Roman church admitting it into the number of its articles of faith, the tenet thus becoming guarded by the sanctity of religious belief, and by the apprehension of incurring the serious charge of heretical opinions. A spirit of investigation, however, at length arose, which resulted in verifying most conclusively the spherical figure of the earth. The establishment of this important truth formed an epoch in the history of modern ages. It had an immediate practical effect upon the common concerns of life. Navigation thence assumed a bolder and more systematic character; an extended commerce added to the wealth of European nations; and a more general and frequent intercourse softened the prejudices of men, and opened to them in distant climes richer and more varied stores of knowledge.

Form.—The earth differs only from a perfect sphere by being slightly flattened at the poles. Its equatorial circumference is 24,857 miles; its equatorial diameter is 7,926 miles, and its polar diameter 7,899 miles—the difference made by compression at the poles being estimated at 27 miles.

Divisions.—The earth is separated into the northern and southern hemispheres by the equator, an imaginary line encircling the globe, and equidistant from the poles. The equator is divided into 360 parts, or degrees, by which the longitude of any place is reckoned east or west of Washington, Greenwich, or any other arbitrary medium. In all places on the equator the days and nights are always of equal length. The distance of any place from the equator is



THE WESTERN HEMISPHERE.

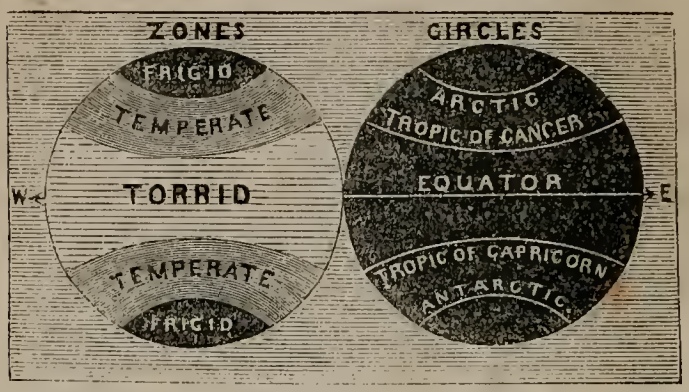
The Western Hemisphere is noted for the magnitude of its lakes, the length and volume of its rivers, the grandeur of its mountains, the fertility of its soil, and the extent and variety of its agricultural and mineral resources. Though it is comparatively but a short period since its discovery, when it was overshadowed by Pagan darkness and inhabited by a savage race, unenlightened by education and true religion, parts of it are now the theatre of energy, progress, the highest civilization known on earth, the abode of art, literature, and science, the special dwelling-place of justice, public virtue, law and order, and of Christianity in its purer aspect. Beasts of prey and barbarism are almost extinct within its borders, and the sun of its glory, rising toward the meridian, is beginning to diffuse light anew upon the eastern circumference of the elder hemisphere.

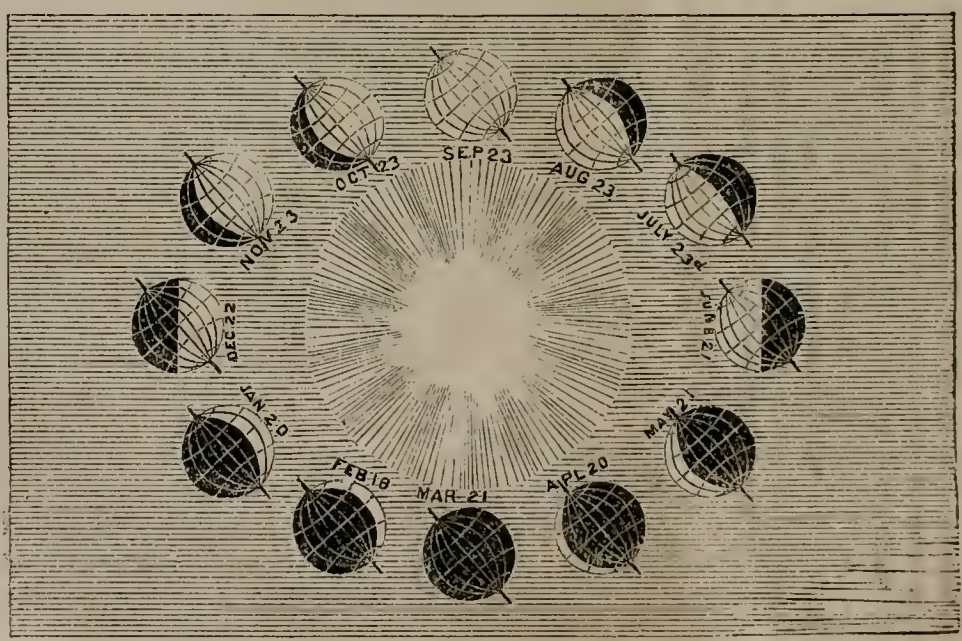
THE EASTERN HEMISPHERE.

These engravings are designed to give an idea of the rotundity of the earth, and illustrate some of the peculiarities of each hemisphere. By the attraction of gravitation all bodies on the surface are drawn as by a powerful magnet toward the centre of the earth, so that mountains, oceans, ships, houses, &c., resting on its opposite sides, and pointing toward opposite parts of the heavens, retain their position, notwithstanding the rotation of the earth on its axis has a tendency to throw them off. The Eastern Hemisphere was the first abode of man, and long before the discovery of the Western, had advanced to a high state of civilization, and the arts and sciences extensively flourished; much of it has retrograded, and is now the seat of despotism, ignorance, and superstition; beasts of prey dispute the possession of the soil with its inhabitants, while magnificent ruins are the visible records of its former greatness.

called its latitude, and being reckoned from the equator toward the nearest pole, it has either north or south latitude accordingly. No place can have more than 90 degrees of latitude, because the poles where they terminate are at that distance from the equator.

The Seasons in which the sun apparently moves in the equator are termed equinoxes, because when he moves in it the day and night are equal over the whole earth. The seasons at which the declination of the sun is greatest are termed solstices, because his declination seems to remain stationary for a time. The circles in which he then moves are denominated tropics, and are called tropics of Cancer and of Capricorn, because they pass through constellations so named in a zone called the Zodiac. The tropics and polar circles divide the earth into five zones: the torrid zone lies between the tropics, and is continually exposed to the vertical rays of the sun; the temperate zones are comprised between the tropics and polar circles—the rays of the sun fall on them more obliquely; and the frigid zones comprise the regions within the polar circles, which seldom receive the sun's rays, and then very obliquely.





The Earth, at different Points of its Orbit around the Sun.

Atmosphere.—The terrestrial globe is surrounded by an invisible and intangible fluid which revolves with it, and whose extent above the surface of the earth has been variously estimated to be on an average from twenty to fifty miles. The atmosphere is composed of two distinct substances, viz., air, properly so called, and water in a state of vapor. According to recent experiments, air contains 20·8 of oxygen, and 79·2 of nitrogen, besides about three thousandths parts of carbonic gas, and traces of ammonial vapors, from which plants derive their nitrogenous contents. Air is capable of expansion by heat, and of compression by cold; consequently its weight or density differs according to its temperature, and is also temporarily affected by other causes. To vegetable

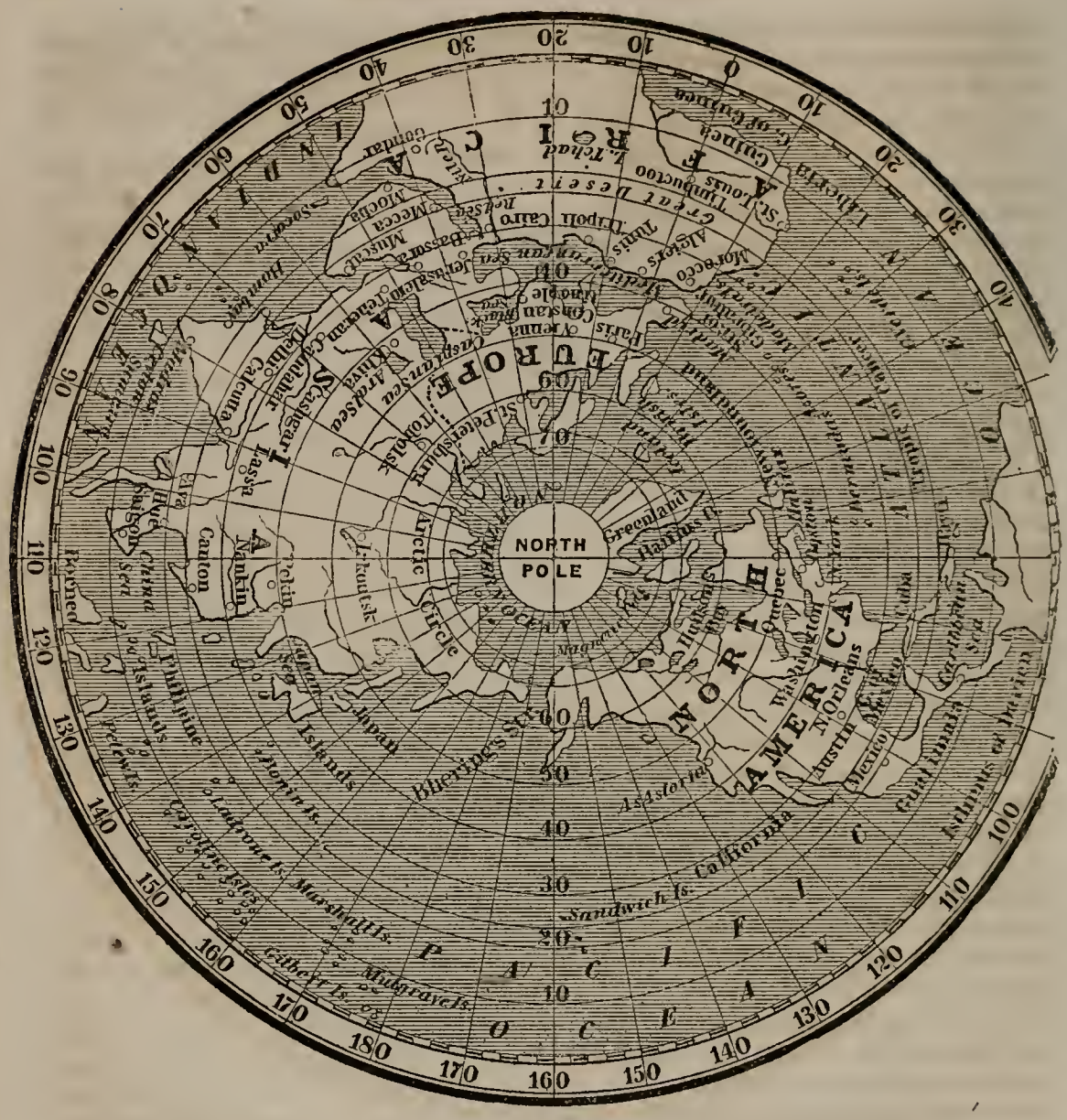
and animal life it is equally essential; by its means the extremes of heat and cold are tempered, and every clime rendered habitable to man; without it there would be neither speech nor hearing, for by reason of the oxygen contained in the atmosphere it becomes a medium for the conveyance of sound.

Winds are motions of air, principally caused by the apparently unequal distribution of heat and cold over the globe; by the motion of the earth in relation to the sun and moon; and by the elevations of the land, and the extent of ocean; by these means the atmosphere is kept in constant motion, fit for the purposes of life, and the water which is raised by evaporation is wafted as clouds to various districts, producing that never-ending change which marks all the operations of the Creator. Within the tropics the general direction of the wind throughout the year is from the eastward; in the temperate regions the aerial currents are more westerly. On the equator calms are prevalent; but toward the tropics storms are of great violence, and are termed hurricanes, or typhoons. The periodic winds termed monsoons (from the Malay word *mussin*, season), in the Indian ocean and adjacent seas, blow from the southwest during six months, viz., April to October; and from the northeast during the other half of the year. Between the tropics and to the 28th or 32d degree there is a steady breeze called the passage or trade winds; in the northern hemisphere they blow generally from the northeast, and in the southern hemisphere from the southeast. Near land they frequently follow the course of the coast. The velocity of the wind varies from a gentle breeze of 5 to 10 miles an hour, to a storm or hurricane of 80 to 100 miles an hour.

Climate signifies the varieties of temperature and moisture in different countries. The climate of any region must of course materially depend on the degree in which it receives the rays of the sun; and the zones into which the earth has consequently been divided have been enumerated. This division, however, can afford but a very imperfect idea of the temperature of any region, because local circumstances often cause great differences of climate between countries in the same parallels of latitude: for instance, there is a difference of 19 degrees Fahrenheit in the mean annual temperature of Main at Labrador, on the northeast coast of America, and of Sitka, on the northwest coast, both in the same parallel. The line of perpetual snow not only varies in different latitudes, but also in the same parallel under different circumstances: thus, on the south side of the Himalaya mountains vegetation ceases at 12,000 feet above the sea, and on the north slopes green crops are found at 15,000 feet above the sea. The snow-line within the tropics is about 16,000 feet, but at 80 degrees from the equator there is almost constant congelation at the ocean level. Islands and coast districts generally enjoy a more moderate climate than the interior of continents, because the ocean preserves an equable temperature, which it communicates to the adjacent country. The climate of any region is greatly influenced by the height and position of its mountains, the peculiarities of its soil, the prevailing winds, the amount of moisture in the atmosphere, and especially by the degree of elevation above the level of the sea. A description of the climates of different countries will be given under their separate heads.

Geology.—The structure of this earth, with which we are but very imperfectly acquainted, confirms, so far as it has been ascertained, the Mosaic account of its creation and preparation during successive ages—the Hebrew word translated "day," signifying also "period," or "state." What countless ages may have passed while this globe was being cooled, clothed with herbage, and covered with animal life, before the formation of man on the sixth and conclusive period of creation, is not permitted us to know.

The crust of the earth is supposed to be about thirty miles in thickness, and as the mean density of the globe, estimating it at rather more than double that of granite, is not quite five sevenths that of iron, not half that of silver, not a



THE WORLD ON A POLAR PROJECTION—NORTHEN HEMISPHERE.

quarter that of gold—the interior is most probably a fluid or gas, possessing a degree of heat greater than any with which we are acquainted. Water drawn from springs or veins of water with which the earth is everywhere intersected, and which lie under the surface as the blood-vessels beneath the skin in the human frame, is found to increase in heat according to the depth from which it is taken.

Mineralogy.—Not only were varieties of stone, and abundance of lime, provided for the construction of habitations, but the earth was also stored with metals, without which man could not have advanced in civilization. Iron, as the most useful, is the most abundant. Copper, lead, zinc, tin, silver, gold, and platina, are found in various regions. There are also varieties of semi-metals. Coal, which is so indispensable, exists probably at greater or less depth in every part of the globe, and is generally found near the seashore.

The Ocean, which constitutes about three fourths of the superficies of the earth, or 150,000,000 square miles, is of various depths, the average being about three miles. Its profundity is probably equal to the height of the land above its surface. The greatest depth would therefore be about five miles.

THE WORLD ON A POLAR PROJECTION—SOUTHERN HEMISPHERE.

The vitality of the ocean is preserved by the constant motion to which it is subjected by the tides, by currents, and by the movements of the atmosphere; but during the most violent storms the agitation does not extend lower than fifty feet. The tides are by some mysterious law connected with the attraction of the moon, and are highest at its new and full. Every twelve hours in the day the sea rises to its greatest height, and remains stationary for about six minutes. There is therefore high and low water on every tidal shore in the world twice every twenty-four hours, varying at the periods of ebb and flow according to the portion of the earth which is turned toward the moon.

The Land.—Estimating the superficies of this globe at somewhat less than 200,000,000 square miles, only about one fourth consists of land, of which the largest portion is in the northern hemisphere. The land is composed principally of two large tracts, one of which is subdivided into the continents of North and South America, and the other into those of Europe, Asia, and Africa. America, which is 9,000 miles long, is insulated from the other three great divisions: Europe and Asia are conterminous, and the latter is joined to Africa by the isthmus (Suez). The proportions of land in the different divisions is

about—Asia, 20,000,000; Africa, 12,000,000; America, 11,000,000; Europe, 4,000,000; and Australasia, 3,000,000—equal to 50,000,000 square miles.

Doubtless the arrangement of earth and ocean, of mountains, plains, lakes, and rivers, has not been left to chance, and is in unison with the laws which are evident in every other part of creation. It would seem, from the great extent of ocean, that it was intended, in addition to its other purposes, to serve as a highway for man, as almost every country borders somewhere on the sea. The most marked features of the earth are its lofty mountains, extensive lakes, and vast rivers. The highest mountain chains are those of the Himalaya, in India, which rise in one part to about five miles in altitude, the Andes, in South America, the Altai, in Asia, the Honan, in China, the Caucasian ridge, in Mesopotamia, the Rocky mountains, North America, and the Alps, in Switzerland. North America possesses the largest fresh-water lakes in the world. Lakes Superior, Huron, Michigan, Erie, and Ontario, cover an area of about 150,000 square miles. Superior, which covers 55,000 square miles, and has an average depth of 1,000 feet, is about 627 feet above the sea. The rivers of North America are also of great extent. In South America the Andes extend along the west coast, and the country then descends by successions of steppes, or table-lands, to the east coast, affording space for the great rivers Amazon, Orinoco, and the Parana, or Plate. The table-land of Mexico is about 7,000, that of Quito, 8,000, and that of Riobomba, 10,000 feet above the sea. Asia has a varied surface, and its mountain ridges and rivers are more extensive than those in any other part of the globe. The Himalaya ridge may be termed the backbone of the earth; between this ridge and that of the Altai mountains there is a table-land 10,000 feet above the sea. The rivers of Asia are of vast extent.

Africa is chiefly distinguished by vast deserts, especially in the northern portion. The rivers Niger, Congo, and Nile, are its chief streams. Europe presents a greater variety of surface than any of the above-named quarters, and although neither its mountains, rivers, or lakes are equal in extent to those of America, Asia, or Africa; yet, by reason of its position, temperate climate, and fertility of soil, it is the most useful and the most beautiful quarter of the globe. A great plain with no marked elevations extends from the German ocean east and north, comprising Denmark, Holland, Belgium, parts of France, Germany, Poland, and the greater portion of European Russia. But all the other regions, including Switzerland, Italy, Spain, Portugal, northern France, Hungary, Styria, Carynthia, Greece, and Turkey in Europe, are more or less elevated, and comprise the most picturesque scenery and cultivated regions of the earth. The prominent ridges are the Alps, Pyrenees, Apennines, and Carpathian mountains. The Ural chain of mountains, so rich in mineral wealth, form the boundary between Europe and Asia, and have an elevation of 3,000 to 6,000 feet.

Great Britain and Ireland present, on a smaller scale, all the leading features of the adjacent continent, in respect to their mountains, lakes, and rivers. The highest peaks in the United Kingdom are, Ben Nevis, in Scotland; Snowdon, in Wales; M'Gillicuddy's reeks, in Ireland, and Skiddaw, in England. The largest rivers of Europe are the Danube, Dneiper, Rhine, Loire, Elbe, and Rhone. The largest lakes in Europe are those of Ladoga, Onega, and Geneva. As the physical features of each country will be separately described, there is no necessity for giving further detail here. Australasia, which has been termed the *fifth quarter* of the globe, is as yet imperfectly known. It includes the largest island in the world, Australia, or New Holland, which is about 2,400 miles in length, and about 1,300 in breadth; and also Van Dieman's Land, New Zealand, and several smaller islands. The rich and beautiful Eastern Archipelago, comprising Sumatra, Java, Borneo, the Moluccas, New Guinea, and other islands, are the links in a chain of insular communication between Asia and Australasia.

Vegetable Kingdom.—The vegetable productions of the earth are almost numberless ; 75,000 species are known to botanists, and offer striking evidence of the wisdom of the Creator, by their marvellous adaptation to the varying soil and climate of the regions to which they are indigenous. The plants most generally diffused over the surface of the globe are those most serviceable to man, and to the herbivorous animals, viz. : the grasses, and wheat, barley, oats, and rye, which are almost universal. The vegetation of the torrid zone is remarkable for its richness and variety ; among the most useful products are rice, sugar, coffee, cocoa, spices, cotton, indigo ; the most valuable medicinal plants, delicate fruits, beautiful cabinet woods, and enduring ship-building timber, (teak and poon), are obtained in the tropical regions.

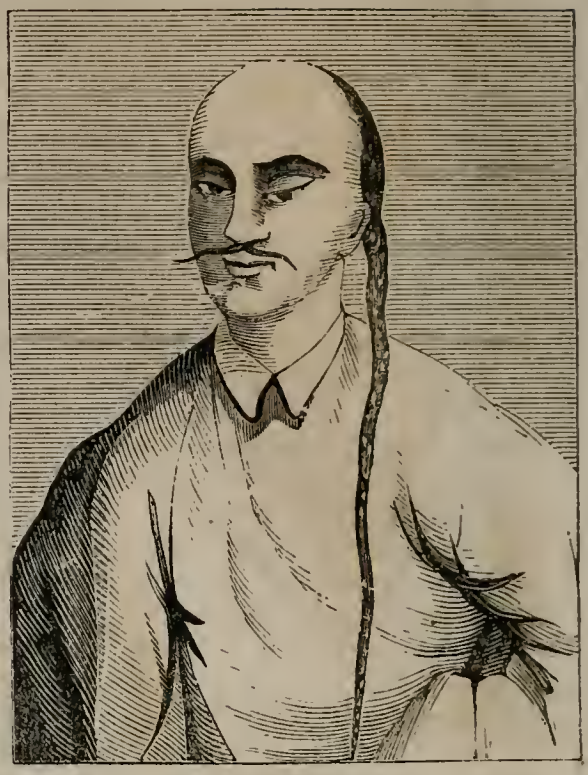
Tea, tobacco, and the mulberry, are the products of countries bordering on the tropics ; in the temperate zones, grain, edible roots (such as the potato), fruits, flax, and timber, abound. As the general average it may be said, that in countries north of 80° latitude, there are about thirty known species of plants ; in the countries between the 80th and 60th parallel, about 600 ; about the 52d parallel, 1,000 ; in the 54th parallel, 2,000 ; in the 45th, about 3,000, and increasing in numbers as we approach the tropics. The ocean also contains numerous species of marine plants.

Animal Kingdom.—Every portion of the earth, air, and ocean teems with animated life, and, as in the vegetable kingdom, the greatest number and variety are found in the torrid zone. The known classified species of animal life are in round numbers—mammalia, 300; birds, 2,600; amphibia, 400; fish, 1,000; insects, 800; vermes, 4,000. The animals domesticated for the use of man, viz., the horse, ass, ox, sheep, and goat, are widely disseminated, and found in or adapted for every zone. The camel, or " ship of the desert," is peculiar to Africa and Asia, as is also the elephant. The carnivorous animals are chiefly found in the torrid zone. In Europe, with the exception of wolves, there are none but herbivorous quadrupeds. Dogs and cats seem to belong to all regions. Among birds, the domestic fowl, ducks and geese, are found in the torrid, as well as temperate zones. The ocean everywhere abounds with food for man.

Man, the lord of the animal creation, has a constitution which enables him to live in every climate. Though sprung from a common origin, long residence in particular climates under particular circumstances have given distinctive characters to the race. In color, they vary from the fair complexion and light eyes of northern Europeans, to the yellow-colored tribes of China, the red American Indian, the olive Malay, and the black African. The hair also differs remarkably, being in some races soft and flowing, in others crisp, resembling wool, in others scanty and wiry. The form of the skull and of the limbs is also liable to considerable variation ; the head of some races being oval, of others pyramidal, and of others flat with a receding forehead. The best ethnologists reckon five principal varieties.

1. The *Caucasian* race comprises nearly all Europe and the north of Africa, together with all Asia, from the Ganges to the Mediterranean, as far north as a line drawn from the Himalaya mountains to the Oxus and the Ural. They have also displaced the original races in the United States and Canada, and on the coasts of Australia and South Africa, and have become largely intermixed with them throughout Mexico and the greater part of South America. They have always comprised the nations most advanced in civilization, and have included Jews, Assyrians, Egyptians, Greeks, Romans, Arabs, and the nations of Modern Europe. The characteristics of the Caucasian race are, an oval head, high forehead, small mouth, and generally flowing hair. In color they differ very widely, from the fairest complexion to swarthy, and even quite black. And it is observable that among the Jews, a single tribe of this great family, and that the one least altered by intermarriages with other people, and

CAUCASIAN.



MONGOLIAN.

the one whose history can be best traced, the varieties of color are of every shade, from the lightest to the darkest. So that the color of the skin may be entirely rejected from the consideration of race, and may be attributed wholly to climate and external circumstances.

2. The *Mongolian*, or Chinese race, occupies the remainder of Asia, with the exception of the Malay peninsula and the adjacent districts. The Finns and Lapps of the extreme north of Europe, and probably the Basques of Spain, and the Esquimaux of North America and Greenland, belong also to this family. The characteristics of the Mongolian are, eyes obliquely set and small, head pyramidal above the cheek bones, which are wide, and render the face larger in proportion to the head, than it is in Europeans. The color is commonly a yellow olive, more or less dark, and the hair scanty, but wiry, though in some Mongolian tribes it is abundant.

AMERICAN.

3. The *American* race, or red Indians, are not at all uniformly of that dull red color which is peculiar to many of their tribes. Some are dark nearly to blackness, and some so fair as to vie with Europeans. The eyes are deeply set, and the beard commonly nearly wanting. They originally occupied the

AFRICAN.

MALAY.

whole continent of America with the exception of the extreme north, but a mixed race has arisen in Peru, Brazil, and Mexico, from the infusion of Spanish and Portuguese settlements; and European colonization has nearly effaced the last traces of aboriginal American blood in the United States and Canada.

4. The whole of Africa below the Sahara and Abyssinia is occupied by the negro race, unless we except the European settlements about the Cape of Good Hope, which are gradually driving the Hottentots and Bushman tribes northward. The latter vary in some respects from the negro races, but have been included under the same family. The aborigines of Australia have been considered also to belong to the negro race rather than to the Malays. The distinctive characteristics are, a low forehead, protruding lips, and crisp hair, but these features are by no means constant, and vary greatly in different tribes.

5. The Malay race extends over the Malay peninsula, and the adjacent islands, Madagascar, and a great part of the Pacific. Their characteristics are, the head narrow, the hair black, flowing, and abundant.

In mentioning these varieties of the human family, it is not to be understood that the type is so strongly defined as to admit of no gradations, much less that there is any distinction so permanent as not to admit of modification, by differing circumstances.

Social Divisions.—With respect to their social state, men may be divided into four classes, viz., savage, barbarian, half-civilized, and civilized.

1. In the *savage* state, men subsist by hunting, fishing, and the spontaneous productions of the earth; and hence are usually thinly scattered over a wide country, rude, ignorant, and destitute of most of the comforts of life. To this class belong the American Indians, and a great part of the negroes in Africa and Australasia.

2. In the *barbarous* state, subsistence is derived chiefly from pasturage and rude agriculture; and men in this state usually live in tents, and wander from place to place with their flocks and herds. The Arabs, Tartars, and Malays in Asia, and the Moors of Northern Africa, are in the barbarous state.

3. Among the *half-civilized* nations, agriculture and some of the finer manufactures are carried on with great care, and to a very high degree of perfection, but foreign commerce is almost unknown. The Chinese, Japanese, Hindoos, Persians, and Turks, are half-civilized nations.

4. In the *civilized* state, science, the arts, and all the various institutions and arrangements of society, are in a highly improved form. Europeans, and their descendants generally, are regarded as civilized, but the degrees of civilization are very different in different countries.

Population.—The population of the world is in round numbers about 1,030,000,000, who are distributed in the following proportions:—Asia and Australasia, 625,000,000; Europe, 250,000,000; Africa, 100,000,000; America, 55,000,000. The following is Hassell's enumeration by races: Caucasian, 436,625,000; Mongolian, 389,310,000; Malayan, 32,000,000; Ethiopian, 69,633,000; American Indians, 10,287,000;—Total, 937,855,000.

Government.—The forms of government into which communities are divided, are despotisms, constitutional monarchies, and republics; of the whole population of the world, not one twentieth enjoy constitutional freedom. The languages spoken are very numerous, Dr. Pritchard estimates them at 2,000. The principal religious creeds are the Christian, Jewish, Mohammedan, Hindu and Buddhist. The professing Christians are in number about 200,000,000; the Jews are estimated at 5,000,000; the Mohammedans, about 150,000,000; the Hindus at 50,000,000; the Buddhists about an equal number; and the remaining population of the earth consists of various pagan and polytheistic sects.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF VARIOUS ERAS.

The year of the Vulgar or Christian Era, 1853, corresponds with the 1857th from the Birth of Christ; with the latter part of the 77th, and beginning of the 78th of the Independence of the United States of America, which was declared Thursday, July 4, 1776; with the close of the 1222d of the Persian era, which began Tuesday, June 19, N. S., 632, A. D. (the years of this era begin now on the 29th of August); with the latter part of the 1269th of the Hegira or Mohammedan era; with the 1301st of the Armenian Ecclesiastical year; with the 1569th of the Era of Diocletian, or Era of Martyrs; with the 1891st of the Era of the Cæsars, or Spanish Era; with the 1898th of the Julian Era, or since the reformation of the calendar of Numa Pompilius, by Julius Cæsar; with the 2165th of the Grecian Era of the Seleucides; with the 2602d of the Babylonish Era of Nabonassar, used by Hipparchus and Ptolemy (this Era dates from Wednesday, February 18th, N. S. 747 B. C., according to Chronologers, or 746 B. C., according to Astronomers. The years contained 365 days *only*, and have, consequently, now advanced upon the Gregorian year 628 days. The 2602d year begins May 30, 1853); with the 2606th (according to Varro) of the old Roman Era A. U. C.; with the 2629th of the Olympiads, or the latter part of the 4th year of the 657th, and beginning of the first of the 658th Olympiad of 4 years; with the 3868th of the era of Abraham, used by Eusebius; with the 4201st from the Deluge, according to Usher and the English Bible); with the 4955th of the Cali Yuga, or Hindu and Indian Era, which dates from the Deluge; with the 4250th of the Chinese, or the 50th of their 71st cycle; with the 5613th from the Creation of the World, according to the Minor Era of the Jews, or the 6212th, according to the Greater Rabbinical Era of the Jews; with the 6081st, according to Eusebius; with the 5797th, according to Scaliger; with the 5857th, according to Usher and the English Bible; with the 7345th, according to the Antiochian and Abyssinian Eras; with the 7355th, according to the Alexandrian Era; with the 7361st, according to the Era of Constantinople, used by the Byzantine Historians. There are about 140 different eras respecting the age of the world; some claiming it to be more than *three millions* of years old. Julius Africanus, following the Septuagint version of the Bible, which is the most *reliable* authority for chronology that is known, makes the Creation to have taken place on the 1st of the Jewish month Tisri, 5508 years B. C., or 7361 years ago.

A GENERAL VIEW

OF THE

PRINCIPAL RIVERS OF THE EARTH.

Name.	Length.	Source and Course.	Termination and Character.
Missouri.	4200	Rises in an elevated valley of the Rocky mountains, between 42° and 48° north latitude. Some of its sources are within a mile of those of the Columbia. Course first north, then east, southeast and south.	Joins its associate the Mississippi, 3,000 miles from its source, the latter, thence, though contributing but one fifth its volume of water, gives name to the main trunk, which terminates in the gulf of Mexico, where it forms a swampy delta 120 miles wide. Eminent geographers consider this the main trunk of a vast system of rivers, whose basin is 1,400,000 geographical square miles. Lower part of its course subject to great inundations. Navigation impeded by sandbars and driftwood.
Mississippi.	3200	Rises in 47° 10′ north latitude, about 150 miles west of Lake Superior. Course mostly to the south.	
The Nile.	3800	Two streams aspire to be called the "true" Nile. The Abyssinian or Blue Nile rises 60 miles south of Lake Tzane or Dembea, and, bending gradually to the north, is joined by the White Nile, which rises near the equator, in the unknown interior of Africa, and thence flows with a course chiefly north.	Mediterranean sea by two chief mouths. A narrow river, watering one long valley. Receives no tributary for 1,350 nautical miles. Course obstructed by rapids in Nubia for 100 miles. Reaches its maximum of inundation in October. Banks thickly peopled. No river more honored than this. Infested by crocodiles and hippopotami.
The Amazon, Marañon, Solimoens, or Orellana.	3600	Humboldt determines the source in Lake Lauricocha, 3°, among the Andes of Peru, about 100 miles from the shores of the Pacific. Course, first north-northwest, then to the east.	Enters the Atlantic ocean by a mouth whose clear width is 150 miles. Though not the longest, is the broadest and most majestic river in the world, having a basin of 1,412,880 square miles. Navigation unimpeded to the Andes. It has a number of large tributaries.
Niger, Quorra, or Joliba.	3000	Believed by Laing to rise in the Kong mountains, about 180 miles north-northwest of Cape Mount. First ascertained by Park, to flow from west to east. The last part of its course is to the south.	In the gulf of Guinea, by an extensive delta, not surveyed. Its termination long a problem; first determined by two brothers of the name of Lander, who, navigating it downward from Boussa, where Park met his fate, came to the sea by a mouth called Nun.
Obi.	2600	Near the frontiers of China, from the Altai chain of mountains. Course through Siberia, chiefly northwest and north.	In the sea of Obi, an estuary of the Arctic ocean. Course very meandering. Basin 1,040,000 square miles. All the Siberian rivers are subject to great floods.
Madeira or Mamore.	2570	Mountains of Cochabamba, in the western part of Bolivia. Course various; Southeast and east, then north and northeast.	Joins the Amazon. Is the longest tributary river in the world. Of wide and powerful current. Blocked by isles and rapids for 350 miles of its course. Flows through unexplored regions.

Name.	Length.	Source and Course.	Termination and Character.
Yennesei.	2500	In Chinese Tartary, in the great Altai chain. Its course through Siberia is more directly north than the Obi.	Forms a long estuary in reaching the Arctic ocean.
Mackenzie.	2440	At the west of Great Slave lake, through which it flows. Course eccentric in its earlier part, ultimately north-northeast.	Enters the Arctic ocean by many mouths. First navigated by Mackenzie, 1789. Communicates with a vast system of lakes, by its various tributaries, in a district little known.
Yang-tse-kiang, or Kianku.	2300	From the southern part of the great Cobi desert in Central Asia—a region prolific in mighty streams. Course southeast, east, and northeast.	Enters the Tung Huan, or Eastern sea, 150 miles below Nanking, and is 20 miles wide at its mouth. Is the largest river of the Old World. Flows through countries little known to Europeans.
Volga.	2300	From the heights of Valdai, in the government of Tver, in Russia. Course to all points; chiefly east, southeast, and south.	Discharges itself below Astrachan, into the Caspian sea, through an archipelago of islands. Its basin 482,464 square miles. Channel very tortuous; often impeded by banks and shallows. Overflows in March.
Irtish.	2300	Rises in China. It flows west, into Nor-zaizan lake, then north through Siberia.	Joins the river Obi at Samarov, in 61° north latitude. Is the greatest tributary stream of the Old World.
Paraña or La Plata.	2200	In a chain of mountains south of Villa Rica, in the government of Minas Geraes, in Brazil. Flows to all points, chiefly southwest and south.	Forms, with the Uruguay, the wide and celebrated estuary called Rio de la Plata. Much impeded by islets and banks. Mouth near five miles wide. Its basin 1,146,640 square miles.
Lena.	2000	Rises 70 miles north of Baikal lake, in Siberia. Course varies, northeast and east; finally, near Yakutsk, turns to the north.	Enters the Arctic ocean in 71° north, with a wide channel. Remarkable for its fossil remains.
Hoang-ho or Yellow.	2000	In Central Asia, 300 miles to the east of the Yang-tse-kiang. Course very eccentric, chiefly to the east.	Enters the Hoang-hai or Yellow sea. The Great Wall of China touches this river twice.
St. Lawrence.	2000	May be considered to rise above Lake Superior, in the table-land of the Huron country, near the sources of the Mississippi. It forms the outlet to the five great lakes of North America. Its course from Lake Ontario is northeast.	Pours an immense volume of water into the Atlantic—90 miles wide at its mouth. Navigable for ships of a large class 1,000 miles. From the sea to Montreal it is called the St. Lawrence; thence to Kingston, in Canada West, the Catasaqui or Iroquois; between Lakes Ontario and Erie it is called the Niagara, whose cataracts are the most remarkable in the world: between Lakes Erie and St. Clair the Detroit; between Lakes St. Clair and Huron, the St. Clair; and between Lakes Huron and Superior, the Narrows or Falls of St. Mary.
Rio Grande del Norte.	2000	Rises in 40° north latitude, near the source of the Arkansas, in the Sierra Madre. General direction south and southeast.	Enters the gulf of Mexico at Matamoras. Navigable for steamboats about 700 miles. In the lower part of its course forms the boundary line between Mexico and the United States.
Orinoco.	2000	Sources in 4° north latitude in the Sierra Parima. Runs first southwest, then west, and bends gradually to the north and northeast.	Debouches into the Atlantic, by numerous outlets, of which the widest is six miles. Humboldt ascertained its bifurcation and communication by the Cassiquiare with the Rio Negro. Tide felt 250 miles inland. Abounds with crocodiles and mosquitoes.

Name.	Length.	Source and Course.	Termination and Character.
Saghalien or Amour.	1800	In Chinese Tartary, from a branch of the Altai mountains. General course east and northeast.	Flows through countries little known, into a gulf opposite a large island of its own name, whence the waters communicate with the seas of Japan and Ochotsk. Has a basin of 856,944 square miles.
Indus or Sindh.	1700	Formed by two streams which unite north of the Himalaya mountains. One, the Leh, rises near the Brahmapootra; the other descends from the Kara mountains. Intersects the Hindu-koosh, and runs to the southwest.	Forms a delta of 80 miles at its entrance into the Indian ocean. Ordinary breadth at Bunnar, one mile. Stream foul and rapid. Channel uncertain. Waters regular in their inundation, return, and quantity. Breadth of the swell, about five miles from the bank. Early part of its course not well ascertained.
Euphrates or El Fraat.	1700	Rises in the southern bases of the sacred Ararat. Course varied, west, south, and southeast.	Discharges itself into the Persian gulf. Stream rapid and not clear. Subject to overflow. No river earlier known, or more famous. It is one of the rivers of Paradise.
Danube or Donau.	1700	Rises in the mountains of the Black Forest, in Baden, near the town of Villingen. Its general course is to the east.	Discharges its waters into the Black sea, by three great mouths. Current rapid. Navigated to Ulm. In Wallachia, its navigation is greatly obstructed by rapids and sandbars. Has a basin of 230,768 square miles, and receives more than 100 fine tributaries.
Ucayale or Paro.	1700	Rises in 18° south latitude, near La Paz. Flows west and northwest, through Peru.	Joins the Amazon in Peru, South America.
St. Francisco.	1600	In the Sierra Canastra, in the province of Minas Geraes, in Brazil. Flows north, northeast, and east.	Enters the Atlantic ocean, near Sergippe, by one wide mouth. Confined to one broad vale, between two chains of mountains.
Xingu or Ginghu.	1600	In 15° south latitude, in the province of Matto Grosso, in Brazil. Flows to the north, inclining east.	Pours its waters into the estuary of the Amazon. Course very meandering.
Columbia.	1500	In the great range of the Rocky mountains, nearly opposite the source of the Missouri. Flows to every point of the compass. Proper direction west.	Pacific ocean, by a mouth five miles in width. Remarkable for its bends. Channel 960 yards over at its junction with the Lewis. Navigation obstructed by timber, and by two series of falls or shoots. Subject to inundation.
Cambodia.	1500	Descends from the tableland of Central Asia, from the neighborhood of the Yang-tse-kiang. It pursues, with no great deviations, a course to the south-southeast.	In the Chinese seas, below Cambodia. Has a large delta. Three principal mouths very wide. Said not to be navigable more than 950 miles from its mouths, on account of its falls.
Brahmapootra.	1500	Rises in Thibet, on the northern side of the great Himalaya mountains. The course of this river is very eccentric; it is mostly east and south.	Discharges its waters into the bay of Bengal, in union with those of the Ganges. Its waters are holy. Is a very wide stream, with few tributaries.
Ganges.	1500	Descends in perpetual cascades from the icy summits of the Himalaya. Course circuitous, southeast, and east.	Bay of Bengal, by numerous outlets, forming a multitude of low wooded islands. Waters are sacred. Stream wide and noble. Subject to periodical inundation. Navigation easy for more than 1,300 miles.
Tocantins.	1500	Rises in the Brazilian Pyrenees. Course chiefly north.	Enters the Atlantic ocean by a great estuary, called Rio Para.

Name.	Length.	Source and Course.	Termination and Character.
Arkansas.	1500	In the Sierra Madre of the Rocky mountains. Its course is east and southeast.	Flows through the Indian Territory and state of Arkansas into the Mississippi, at latitude 33° 30′.
Tongouska.	1500	Rises about 100 miles west of the Lena. Course, semicircular, north, northwest, and west.	Is a potent tributary to the Yennesei, into which it pours its waters, in Siberia, in 65° north latitude.
Ohio.	1380	Formed by a junction of the two rivers Monongahela and Allegany at Pittsburgh; the last of which issues from a small lake near Lake Erie. General course southwest.	Falls into the Mississippi in 37° north latitude, where it is one mile wide. A broad and noble stream, of inestimable advantage to American commerce. Obstructed by falls and rapids for about two miles at Louisville, but which is avoided by Louisville and Portland canal. Course very sinuous.
Paraguay.	1300	In the mountains of Matto Grosso in Brazil. It has a course to the south.	Joins the Paraña at Corrientes. Receives abundant tributaries on all sides, and dilates for 150 miles of its course into the resemblance of a lake.
Negro.	1260	Source in the province of Caguan, in New Grenada, not ascertained. Flows first to the east, afterward south, and then southeast.	Enters the river Amazon by a delta of three mouths. This river receives from the Orinoco the branch called Cassiquiare, which connects, for purposes of commerce and communication, the basins of the Orinoco and Amazon.
Irawaddy or Arah-wah-tee	1200	In Central Asia, near the Cambodia. Flows mostly to the south, through the Birman empire.	In the Indian ocean, by a great many mouths. Has few tributaries; yet is a very wide river. Its banks are thickly peopled.
Red or Roxo.	1150	In the Rocky mountains. Flows east and southeast.	Joins the Mississippi in Louisiana.
Araguay.	1150	In the Brazilian Pyrenees. Course to the north.	Unites itself with the river Tocantins. Flows through countries little known or settled.
Tapajos.	1150	In the Cerro Parexis, in Brazil. Flows to the north.	Enters the Amazon at Santarem, in 1° south latitude.
Pelcomayo.	1150	In the Andes of Charcas, north of Potosi, in Bolivia. Course east and southeast.	Joins the Paraguay below the city of Assumption, on the western border of Paraguay.
Tigris.	1140	Rises in the chain of Mount Taurus, about 85 miles north of Diarbekr, in Asiatic Turkey. General course southeast.	Joins the Euphrates at Koorna. Its course is exceedingly sinuous. Famous in early history. Water sweet, though turbid.
Colorado of the Pacific.	1100	In the Rocky mountains, in 43° north latitude, and pursues a southwesterly course.	Discharges itself into the Gulf of California. Flows through a country destitute of timber.
Jihoon, Amoo, or Oxus.	1100	In Lake Sirikel, in the Hindu-koosh mountains. Course chiefly northwest.	Discharges itself into the sea of Aral by two principal mouths.
Don.	1100	Rises in the province of Tula, in Russia. Flows to all points; proper direction to the south.	Discharges its waters through the sea of Azof into the Black sea.
Dneiper.	1000	In the northern part of the Russian government of Smolensk. Direction, south, southwest, and southeast.	Enters the Black sea below Kherson, in one great stream. Navigation obstructed by rapids in Ekatherinoslav.
Uruguay.	1000	In the Brazilian coast range. Course west, southwest, and south.	Terminates in the estuary of the Rio de la Plata, in conjunction with the Rio Paraña.
Platte or Nebraska.	1000	Has its source near that of the Arkansas, in the Rocky mountains. Its course is to the east.	Runs into the river Missouri. Forms the northern boundary of the Indian territory. Can be forded at almost any point in low stages of water.

Name.	Length.	Source and Course.	Termination and Character.
Colorâdo de Mendoza.	960	From volcano of Coquimba, in the Chilian Andes. General course southeast, through the Argentine republic.	Discharges itself into the South Atlantic ocean, in latitude 39° 30′ south, and longitude 64° west from Greenwich.
Magdalena.	950	In the Paramo de las Papas, in the province of Neyva, in New Grenada. General course north.	Enters the Caribbean sea by many mouths. Navigation unobstructed up to Honda. Often a mile wide after its union with the Cauca. Infested with crocodiles and gnats.
Ural.	950	From the Ural mountains, north of Ouralsk. Proper course south, in the middle west.	Enters the Caspian sea. For a part of its course it forms the dividing line between Europe and Asia.
Jumna.	950	In the Himalaya mountains. Course forms the segment of a circle—southwest to southeast.	Flows into the Ganges at Allahabad, in Hindostan.
Thulean.	920	Has its source in Thibet, and runs to the south.	Enters the Indian seas at Martaban. Almost without a tributary of any consequence.
Nerbuddah.	900	Near Ajmeergur, in Central India. Flows to the west.	Enters the Arabian gulf through the gulf of Cambay.
Putumayo or Ica.	900	From the Andes of Ecuador. Flows east and southeast.	Joins the Amazon, in Brazil.
Tennessee.	900	In the Allegany mountains, Virginia. Course to all points, properly west and north..	Enters the Ohio, near its junction with the Mississippi.
Purus.	900	In the mountains of Peru, about 12° south latitude. Its course is northeast.	Discharges into the river Amazon, above the Rio Negro.
Petchora.	900	From the Ural mountains, in the north of the province of Perm, in Russia. Proper direction north and west.	Enters the Arctic ocean, through an archipelago of low isles. Main channel 20 miles wide at the mouth.
Oula or Songari.	900	In Manchuria. Flows southeast, and northeast.	Joins the river Amour, in Chinese Tartary. Course is winding.
Rhine.	860	Has its springs in Mount St. Gothard, in the Grisons, Switzerland. True direction to the northwest.	Enters the North sea or German ocean. Remarkable for its noble origin in the High Alps, and its mean termination in the dikes of Holland. At Schanke, its chief waters go into the Meuse, by the Waal; but the channel, that retains the name, is nevertheless full, deep, and navigable to the sea. Basin 58,568 square miles.
Canadian.	850	In the Rocky mountains. Course south and east.	Joins the river Arkansas, in the Indian territory.
Vermejo.	800	In the Andes, near southwestern border of Bolivia. Course varies from east to southeast.	Enters the Paraguay, a little above its junction with the Paraña.
Coqueta or Yapura.	800	In the Andes of Popayan, New Grenada. Course southeast and east.	Joins the river Amazon, above the Negro. Navigation obstructed by several falls.
Senegal.	800	Rises in the highlands of Mendingo, in Africa. Course is semicircular, east, north, northwest, and west.	Enters the Atlantic ocean at 15° 5′ north latitude. A shifting sandbar prevents entrance of vessels drawing over 10 feet water. Cataracts about midcourse. Attains its highest flood in August.
Godavery.	800	Rises in the Ghaut mountains, in Hindostan, about 20° north latitude. General direction east and southeast.	In the bay of Bengal. Forms a delta of 60 miles. Has a tortuous channel.

Name.	Length.	Source and Course.	Termination and Character.
Paranahyba.	800	In the Sierra Duro, in Brazil. Course north-northeast.	Enters the Atlantic ocean by three mouths, in latitude 1° south.
Aldan.	800	In the Altai mountains of Siberia. Course north and west.	Joins the Lena just below Yakutsk.
Sutlej.	800	Issues from Lake Rawan, in Thibet. Runs northwest, beside the Himalayas, which, turning, southwest, it intersects between mountains of amazing height.	Joins its water to those of the Indus, in the northwestern part of Hindostan. One of the five streams which give to that region the name of Punjab, memorable as the battle-ground of the Scik and British wars in 1845–'49.
Syr or Sihoon.	800	In the Beloor or Gakchel mountains. Circuitous northwestern course through Independent Tartary.	Enters the sea of Aral by several outlets. This sea gradually subsides.
Yarkand.	800	Rises on the eastern side of the Beloo Tag, or Northern Imaus. Flows to the east.	Believed to terminate in a lake in China called Lopnor. Some late reports mention a supposed communication with the Irtish.
Indigurka.	800	In the Altai mountains of Siberia. Course northerly.	Flows into the Arctic ocean.
Olensk or Olonec.	800	In the territory of the Tongousi, in Siberia. Flows north.	Empties into the Arctic ocean.
Vitim.	800	In the Altai chain of mountains. Runs to the north.	Joins the Lena at Vitimsk.
Issim or Ishim.	800	Has its source in Independent Tartary. Runs north.	Joins its waters with those of the Irtish, in Siberia.
Apurimac.	780	Lake Villano, in the province of Arequipa, about 45 miles from the shores of the Pacific. Flows through Peru, north, northwest, and northeast.	Joins the river Ucayale or Paro. This was considered the true river Amazon, until the question was otherwise settled by Humboldt.
Olekma.	750	On the confines of the Chinese empire. Flows north.	Enters the river Lena, not far from Olekminsk.
Kansas.	710	In the Great Desert, between the rivers Platte and Arkansas. Course to the east.	After receiving several tributaries it joins the Missouri, a few miles above Independence, in the state of Missouri.
Divina or Dwina.	700	Three rivers rising in distant quarters, and uniting in Vologda, Russia, form the Divina. Soukhona, the principal river, rises near Vologda. It flows northeast and north-northwest.	Empties into the White sea, forming the great northern port of Archangel, in Russia.
Jutay or Hyntahy.	700	In the neighborhood of the Javary, in the Peruvian Andes, South America. Course north and northeast.	Unites itself with the Amazon.
Gambia.	700	Believed to rise near the Senegal, and to have a very eccentric course. Proper direction to the west.	Terminates in the Atlantic ocean, at Cape St. Mary's. Is 20 miles wide at its mouth. Length can not properly be ascertained.
Meinam.	700	In the southwestern frontier of China. Bends gradually to the south.	Gulf of Siam, in Farther India, by a delta of three mouths.
Javary or Yabary.	700	In the Sierra de Conomamas, in Peru, South America. Course varies northwest to east.	Joins the Amazon. Character little known.
Parima or Branco.	700	In the Parima mountains, which form the southern boundary of Venezuela. Proper course south.	Joins the Rio Negro, in Brazil.

Name.	Length.	Source and Course.	Termination and Character.
Colorado of Texas.	700	In Mount Guadalupe. Runs southeast and south.	Flows through Texas, receiving several tributaries, into the gulf of Mexico.
Tobol.	700	In the steppe or desert of Issim, in Independent Tartary. Course to the north.	Joins the Irtish at Tobolsk, in Siberia.
Orange or Gariep.	700	Rises in the country of the Bushmen, in South Africa, from sources yet unknown. Flows across the continent to the west.	Enters the Atlantic ocean near Cape Voltas. Has a very tortuous course. Much impeded by cataracts. Overflows in November and December. Its bed said to abound with precious stones.
Helmund or Helmind.	600	In the Hindu-koosh mountains, in Afghanistan. General course south and west.	Discharges its waters into the Lake or Sea of Zuroth.
Alabama.	600	In the southern extremity of the Allegany mountains. Flows south, west, and south.	Unites with the Tombigbee to form the Mobile, which enters the Gulf of Mexico by many mouths.
Elbe.	600	From numerous affluents on the north side of the Bohemian mountains. Course circuitous, but generally to the northwest.	Empties into the North sea, below Hamburgh. Seven miles wide at its mouth. Very useful to German traffic. Basin estimated 44,860 square miles.
Meta.	600	From the eastern side of the Andes of Bogota, and flows north and east.	Joins the Orinoco, below San Borja. Flows through vast plains, called Llanos, abounding in high grass.
Vistula or Wiesel.	550	In the bases of the Carpathian mountains, in Austrian Silesia. Its course circuitous, mostly northeast and north.	Enters the Baltic sea by three mouths. A noble stream, of great utility to commerce.
Lewis or Saptin.	520	In the Big Horn or Long's Peak, in the Oregon territory. Flows northwest and west.	Mixes its waters with those of the Columbia, in latitude 46° 20′ north.
Kama.	500	In the Ural mountains in the province of Viatka, in Russia. Flows first north, then east, and finally south.	Joins the Volga, in the province of Kazan. Course sinuous. It is the largest secondary or tributary river of Europe.
Kistnah.	500	In the Ghaut mountains, 25 miles south of Poonah. Runs southeast and east.	Enters the Indian ocean by two mouths. Course very winding.
Dniester.	500	From the northern base of the Carpathian mountains, in Austria. Course southwest.	Empties into the Black sea, below Odessa, in Russia. Remarkable for a channel perpetually winding.
Guapora or Itenaz.	500	From the Sierra Parexis, in South America. Course circuitous, mostly to the north.	Joins the Madeira, in Brazil. It flows through regions little known.
Cauca.	500	In the Andes of Popayan, in New Grenada. Flows north and northeast.	Unites itself with the Magdalena, below Mompax, in latitude 9° north.
Tombigbee.	500	Rises in the northern part of Mississippi. Course nearly south, through Miss. and Ala.	Empties into the Mobile, in Alabama. It receives many fine streams, and is navigable to Columbus, in Mississippi.
James.	500	In the Alleganies. Course circuitous, but generally east.	Flows into Chesapeake bay, about 37° north latitude.
Altamaha.	500	Formed by the union of the Oconee and Ockmulgee, in Georgia. Course southeast.	Discharges into the Atlantic through several mouths, sixty miles south of the Savannah. Navigable for small vessels 200 miles from the ocean.
Savannah.	500	Rises in the Alleganies, and, taking a southeastern course, divides South Carolina from Georgia.	Falls into the Atlantic in 32° north latitude. Navigable for large vessels to Savannah, Ga., 18 miles, and for small vessels to Augusta, 140 miles farther.
Roanoke.	500	Formed by the Staunton and the Dan, both of which rise in Virginia. Course southeast, through Virginia and N. C.	Empties into Albemarle sound. Is navigable for 70 miles to the falls, and, by means of the Weldon canal, around the falls to Danville, in Virginia.

MOUNTAINS OF THE WESTERN HEMISPHERE — MOUNTAINS OF THE EASTERN HEMISPHERE

COMPARATIVE HEIGHT OF THE CHIEF MOUNTAINS OF THE WORLD.

a Highest flight of a Balloon. *b* Highest flight of a Condor.

TABLE OF THE HEIGHTS, ETC.,

OF THE

CHIEF MOUNTAINS OF THE WORLD.

NOTE.—In the following table it has rather been the endeavor to give a selection of the most remarkable points in many localities, than a mere catalogue of the highest summits: a thing in the present state of information impracticable, and of no great value if attained.

No.	Name.	Height in Feet.	Locality.
1	Kailas	29,000	Hindu-koosh, Afghanistan.
2	Dhawalagihri	28,174	Himalaya, Nepaul, Hindostan.
3	Jawahir	25,750	Himalaya, Bhotan, Hindostan.
4	Sorata	25,400	Andes of Bolivia.
5	Illimani	24,250	Andes of Bolivia.
6	Chamalari	23,980	Himalaya.
7	Aconcagua	23,907	Andes, Chili.
8	Koondus	23,543	Himalaya, Nepaul, Hindostan.
9	Budrinath	23,444	Himalaya, Nepaul, Hindostan.
10	Chimborazo	21,440	Andes of Ecuador.
11	Chuquobamba	21,000	Andes of Peru.
12	Petcha	21,000	Honan, China.
13	Kilmandjaro	20,000	Zanguebar, Africa.
14	Antisana	19,137	Andes of Ecuador.
15	Cotopaxi	18,889	Andes of Ecuador.
16	Elbours	18,493	Caucasus.
17	Arequipa	18,373	Andes of Peru.
18	Moonakoah	18,000	Hawaii, Sandwich Islands.
19	Mount St. Elias	17,860	Rocky Mountains, Russian America.
20	Popocatepetl	17,735	Mexico, North America.
21	Cittalapetl or Orizaba	17,388	Mexico, North America.
22	Ararat	17.266	Armenia.
23	Cerro de Potosi	16,000	Andes of Bolivia.
24	Pichincha	15,940	Andes of Ecuador.
25	Klutchefskaia	15,825	Kamtschatka
26	Mont Blanc	15,800	Alps, Savoy.
27	Monte Rosa	15,150	Alps, Switzerland.
28	Sierra Nevada	15,500	California, United States.
29	Geesh Mountains	15,000	Abyssinia.
30	Tongaragua	14,974	Andes of Bolivia.
31	Cervin or Matterhorn	14,837	Alps, Switzerland.
32	Mount Fairweather	14,732	Confines of Russian America.
33	Mquinvari	14,500	Caucasus.
34	Loucyra	14,451	Alps of France.
35	Ophir	14,160	Island of Sumatra.
36	Loupilla	14,144	Alps of France.
37	Finster Aarhorn	14,100	Bernese Alps.
38	Hood	14,000	Oregon Territory.
39	Mount St. Helen's	13,300	Oregon Territory.
40	Monte Viso	13,872	Alps, Piedmont.
41	Jungfrau	13,700	Bernese Alps.
42	Monch	13,507	Bernese Alps.
43	Eiger	13,483	Bernese Alps.
44	Fremont's Peak	13,470	Rocky Mountains, United States.
45	Bighorn	13,430	Rocky Mountains, United States.
46	Shreckhorn	13,377	Bernese Alps.
47	Vischerhorn	13,300	Bernese Alps.
48	Iseran	13,286	Alps, Piedmont.
49	Arjish-dagh	13,100	Anatolia or Asia Minor.
50	Cameroons	13,000	Biafra, Africa.
51	Sevellan	13,000	Armenia.

No.	Name.	Height in Feet.	Locality.
52	Amid-Amid	13,000	Abyssinia.
53	Ortler Spitz	15,000	Tyrolese Alps.
54	Soconda	12,600	Honan, China.
55	Peak of Teneriffe	12,300	Canary Isles.
56	Cenis	11,800	Alps, Switzerland.
57	Mulhaçen	11,650	Sierra Nevada, Spain.
58	Simplon	11,540	Alps, Switzerland.
59	Mount Egmont	11,430	New Zealand.
60	La Maladetta	11,424	Pyrenees.
61	Miltsin	11,400	Morocco.
62	Pic de Veleta	11,385	Sierra Nevada, Spain.
63	Pic Posets	11,277	Pyrenees.
64	Koriatskaia	11,215	Kamtschatka.
65	Mont Perdu	11,168	Pyrenees.
66	Peña de Peñaranda	11,031	Leon, Spain.
67	Great St. Bernard	11,027	Alps, Switzerland.
68	Italitskoi	11,000	Altai Range, Asia.
69	Ætna	10,954	Sicily.
70	Buet	10,100	Alps, Savoy.
71	Nieuweldt	10,000	Cape of Good Hope, Africa.
72	Parmesan	10,000	Banca, Sunda Isles.
73	Lebanon	9,800	Syria.
74	Pindus	9,750	Turkey in Europe.
75	Orbelus	9,660	Balkan Ridge, Turkey.
76	Little St. Bernard	9,594	Graian Alps.
77	Monte Corno	9,542	Apennines, Naples.
78	Sierra Cobre	9,000	Cuba.
79	Peak of Lomnitz	8,700	Carpathian Mountains.
80	Monte Velino	8,397	Apennines, Naples.
81	Adam's Peak	8,280	Ceylon.
82	Egmont Peak	8,150	New Zealand.
83	Schneehatten	8,120	Norway.
84	Parnassus	8,068	Greece.
85	Krivan	8,034	Carpathian Mountains.
86	Taygetus	7,900	Greece.
87	Ida	7,690	Candia.
88	Sinai	7,530	Arabia.
89	Blue Mountains	7,486	Jamaica.
90	Tousas	6,800	Russia.
91	Mount Washington	6,650	White Mountains, New Hampshire.
92	Paudinskoi	6,550	Ural.
93	Olympus	6,520	Anatolia or Asia Minor.
94	Cevennes	6,500	France.
95	Black	6,476	Alleganies, North Carolina.
96	Righi	6,079	Switzerland.
97	Tanagai	5,400	Ural Mountains.
98	Hecla	5,200	Iceland.
99	Mount Marcy	5,200	New York.
100	Dovrefeld	4,875	Norway.
101	Puy de Dome	4,840	France.
102	Ben Macdhu	4,418	Aberdeenshire.
103	Ben Nevis	4,370	Invernesshire,
104	Mansfeldt	4,280	Green Mountains, Vermont
105	Peaks of Otter	4,260	Blue Ridge, Virginia.
106	Vesuvius	3,932	Naples.
107	Catskill	3,800	New York.
108	Table Mount	3,580	Cape of Good Hope, Africa.
109	Snowdon	3,571	Carnarvonshire, Wales.
110	Macgillicuddy Reeks	3,410	Kerry, Ireland.
111	Skiddaw	3,022	Cumberland.
112	Mount of Olives	2,556	Palestine.
113	Cradle Mount	2,545	Brecknock.
114	Ozark	2,500	Arkansas.
115	Cape Horn	1,860	South America.

AMERICA.

Of the four great quarters of the globe, the continent of America is the largest; and on that account, together with its late discovery, it has been denominated the "New World." It extends from 55° 58′ south latitude to 74° north, a length of upward of 9,000 miles; and its width, lying between 35° and 168° west longitude from Greenwich, where greatest, is 3,800 miles; and its average breadth about 1,500 miles. This vast tract of country occupies an area of 12,000,000 square miles, and is marked into two great divisions, called North and South America, connected only at one point by the isthmus of Panama, which is in places not more than from forty to fifty miles broad. The American continent is bounded by the Atlantic ocean on the east, and the Pacific on the west. Toward the north its limits have been but partially explored.

History.—Whether the continent of America was known to the ancients is a point quite undecided. Discoveries by the Norwegians in the tenth and eleventh centuries have been published; but the knowledge obtained by the Northmen appears to have been little promulgated, and eventually lost to Europe; and it is certain, that at the revival of letters, the Canaries, or Fortunate islands were believed to be the western limits of the world. About the latter part of the fifteenth century, Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, conceived the idea of sailing to the East Indies across those unexplored seas that lie to the westward of the then known world, thus exhibiting a knowledge of the sphericity of the earth far beyond the age in which he lived. On the 3d of August, 1492, he sailed from Palos, in Spain, and after weeks of anxious care, and amid the murmurings of discontent and threatened mutiny, on the 11th of October, he discovered one of the islands of the Bahama group, to which he gave the name of San Salvador.* He visited Cuba, St. Domingo, and other

LANDING OF COLUMBUS.

* Columbus and his crew, immediately after landing, gathered in a group upon the shore, and, with the priests that accompanied them, they lifted up the voice of thanksgiving to God, for his gracious preservation. The astonished natives gathered at a little distance in awe and wonder.

West India islands, but it was not until his third voyage, in 1498, that he discovered the continent, at the mouth of the Orinoco, in South America. The success which attended Columbus soon induced other adventurers to follow him.

Almost simultaneously, in 1498, Giovanni, or John Cabot, a Venetian by birth, and Amerigo Vespucci a Florentine, sailed for the lands discovered by Columbus; the former under the auspices of Henry VII., of England, and the latter in employ of Spanish merchants, with the sanction of Ferdinand. Cabot discovered Newfoundland, and touched at other points, but did not attempt a settlement. Vespucci added nothing to the discoveries of his predecessors, but on his return home published an account of the discoveries in the New World; and the country was, in consequence, named after him AMERICA, an honor to which Columbus was more justly entitled. In 1500, Corte de Real, a Portuguese in search, like all the other American explorers, of a northwest passage to India and China, discovered the coast of Labrador. In 1502, the gulf of Mexico was visited by Columbus. In 1513, Florida was discovered by John Ponce, a Spanish captain. In 1519, Fernando Cortez discovered and conquered Mexico. In 1524, John Verrazzani, a Florentine, in the service of Francis I., of France, examined a considerable part of the Atlantic coast of N. America, and in 1525, Stephen Gomez sailed to the 46° In 1535, California was discovered by Cortez. In 1539, Hernando de Soto, a Spaniard, discovered the Mississippi. In 1576, Frobisher, an Englishman, discovered the straits which bear his name. In 1577, Drake was the second navigator to sail round the globe, and his discoveries kindled the enthusiasm of his fellow-countrymen in England. In 1585, John Davis explored the west coast of Greenland. In 1607, Henry Hudson discovered the bay or inland sea which bears his name, where he perished in a mutiny of his seamen. In 1607, John Smith discovered Chesapeake bay. In 1616, William Baffin explored Baffin's bay. In 1673, Louisiana was discovered by the French. In 1728, Behring's straits were discovered by a Danish navigator of the same name, then in the service of Russia. From 1772 to 1775, the justly celebrated Captain Cook explored the northwest coast of America, which was also carefully surveyed by the distinguished English navigator, Vancouver. From 1819 to 1822, Captain Franklin determined the northwest boundaries of the Arctic sea, between the mouths of the Coppermine river and Cape Turnagain. In 1819, Lieutenant Barry explored the northeast boundaries, and penetrated as far as Melville island, in 74° 27′ north, 113° 47′ west. In 1825–'26, Captain Franklin traced the coast from the Coppermine to Mackenzie's river, and from the mouth of the latter to 149° 30′ west longitude. In 1827, Captain Beechey discovered the coast from Icy Cape to Point Barrow; the subsequent discoveries of Sir John and Sir James Ross, of Sir John Richardson, of the royal navy, and of Hearne, Mackenzie, Dease, Simpson, and Rae, officers of the Hudson's Bay and Northwest Companies, and Lieut. De Haven and Dr. Kane, of the Grinnell expedition have nearly completed the north coast line of the American continent.

NORTH AMERICA.

Boundaries.—North America is bounded on the east by the Greenland sea, Atlantic ocean, gulf of Mexico, and Caribbean sea; on the south and west by the Pacific ocean, and on the north by Behring's straits, and the Arctic seas and islands. It is in length from north to south about 4,500 miles.

Physical Aspect.—The numerous indentations, estuaries, bays, and gulfs on the eastern shores of North America, present a marked contrast to the generally unindented western coast, and also to the regular outlines of the eastern and western shores of South America. The force of the Atlantic, driven by strong easterly winds, has formed the great inland seas and gulfs of Hudson, Baffin, St. Lawrence, and Mexico, and the noble harbors on the eastern coast of America fitly adapt the country for maritime industry and commerce.

Mountains.—The most marked inland feature is the vast range termed the Rocky, or Stony mountains, which run parallel to the Pacific from Mackenzie's river, in the Arctic regions, to the isthmus of Panama, and after a slight break, continue along the west coast of South America to Cape Horn. The height of this range varies much; so far as we know the loftiest portion of the Rocky mountains is in New Caledonia, where the altitude is from 12,000 to 18,000 feet, and where there are several parallel ranges. In California, the Sierra Nevada, a ridge of less height than the Rocky mountains runs nearer to the Pacific. In the eastern parts of North America the Allegany, or Appalachian mountains, also extend in a northerly and southerly direction from the gulf and river St. Lawrence, to near the northern confines of Georgia in the United States. The highest points of this ridge do not exceed 6,500 feet; the general elevation is 2,000 to 3,000 feet above the sea.

Plains.—The mountain ranges mark the three great lowlands; viz., the Western, between the Rocky mountains and the Pacific, the Central, or great Mississippi basin, between the Rocky mountains and the Alleganies, and the Eastern Lowlands, between the Alleganies and the Atlantic. In the great central basin, which extends from the coasts of the Arctic sea to the gulf of Mexico, there are three wide and regular slopes, the first between the Alleganies and the Mississippi, is slightly diversified by hills, and includes the most fertile portion of the United States; the second, more extensive and more level, slopes gradually from the Mississippi to the Rocky mountains, and consists of extensive prairies and sandy districts, with few landmarks, excepting a well-wooded belt of 200 miles; and in the more southern districts the "Cross Timber" forests extend from north to south across the prairies of Texas to the south bank of the Arkansas river, and form the leading feature of the western prairies. The region toward the gulf of Mexico is low and swampy. The third slope extends northward from the sources of the Mississippi and Missouri, forming the great plain of the Saskatchewan and the numerous lakes and swamps which lie between Hudson's bay, the Rocky mountains, and the Arctic seas, in the whole of which there are few elevated tracts. Mexico is, for the greater part, a table land, with an average elevation above the sea of 7,000 feet, a sloping descent to the Pacific and to the gulf of Mexico: a chain of active volcanoes traverses the table land at right angles. The general dip of the land is from north to south throughout the United States; at Panama the elevation of the land is not more than 1,000 feet, with low plains on either side, of alluvial formation.

Lakes.—North America has the largest lakes in the world : the dimensions of the best known are as follows : —

Names.	Length in miles.	Breadth in miles.	Circumference in miles.	Average depth in feet.	Elevation above the sea.
Superior	420	140	1,500	1,000	627
Huron	250	220	1,200	860	594
Michigan	300	80	800	780	
Erie	265	63	700	250	565
Ontario	180	60	500	500	234
Champlain	105	12	235		
Nicaragua	95	30	250	50	128
Simcoe	40	30	120	125	700
St. Clair	35	30	100	20	

There are other large lakes in North America, such as Lake Winnipeg, Great Slave lake, Great Bear lake, Great Salt lake, and others, whose dimensions have not been definitely ascertained.

Bays.—The North American coast is indented with immense gulfs and arms of the sea. One of the principal of these, in the northeast part of the continent, has not been inaptly termed the sea of the Esquimaux, from its coasts being everywhere occupied by tribes belonging to this peculiar race : it consists of two great divisions, Davis's straits and Baffin's bay, separating Greenland from the main land, and Hudson's bay lying more to the south and west, but connected with the former by numerous channels, some of which have been only recently discovered. The navigation of these seas and inlets, even in the most favorable seasons, is extremely difficult, from their being constantly encumbered with ice ; and it is only during a short period of the year that it can be attempted. The next great inlet of the sea is the gulf of St. Lawrence, so called from the great river of the same name which falls into its southwest extremity. Passing over the numerous inlets and noble bays on the coast of the United States, we come to the gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean sea. This vast Mediterranean is separated from the Atlantic by the peninsula of Florida and the islands of the West Indies. The latter are, as it were, a continuation of Florida, and are, it is probable, the only remaining points of what was once a broad belt of land, which has been broken to pieces and partly submerged in some of those tremendous convulsions to which the earth has been subject. But however this may be, this great inland sea is divided into two portions by the peninsula of Yucatan and Cape San Antonio, at the western extremity of the island of Cuba, which approach within a comparatively short distance of each other ; that to the north being called the gulf of Mexico, and that to the south the Caribbean sea, or the sea of the Antilles. The gulf of Cortez, or California, separating the peninsula of that name from the main land, is the most important inlet of the sea on the west coast of North America.

Rivers.—The principal rivers of North America are, the Missouri, Mississippi, Ohio, M'Kenzie, Arkansas, Red, Columbia, Susquehanna, Potomac, Sacramento, Santee, Alabama, Hudson, Rio Grande, Buena Ventura, Colorado, Sonora, Sabine, and St. Lawrence. The whole course of the Missouri, with its associate the Mississippi, is over 4,000 miles from its source to its mouth in the gulf of Mexico.

Climate varies according to latitude : on the eastern coast of North America the cold of winter is more severe, and the heat more oppressive than on the western coast. At Vancouver's island, in 50° north, the climate is comparatively mild, but the east coast, in the same latitude, has a very severe and almost uninhabitable region. On the shores of the gulf of Mexico the heat is excessive, and throughout the northern or maritime coasts of Central America, the atmosphere, saturated with vegetable miasm, and deprived of its oxygen by volcanic eruptions, is highly prejudicial to human life.

NORTHAMERICA
Scale of Miles
200 400 600 800 1000
ARCTIC OCEAN
GREENLAND
RUSSIAN AMERICA
BRITISH AMERICA
LABRADOR
HUDSONS BAY
CANADA
UNITED STATES
MEXICO
GULF OF MEXICO
WEST INDIES
CUBA
HAYTI
CARIBBEAN SEA
SOUTH AMERICA
Arctic Circle
Magnetic Pole
Cockburn I.
Cumberland I.
Southampton I.
Mt. St. Elias 18000 ft.
Gr. Slave L.
Athabasca L.
Ft. York
L. Winipeg
Washington I.
Vancouvers I.
Astoria
Columbia R.
Ft. Vancouver
Ft. Umqua
C. Mendocino
St. Francisco
Gold Region
Monterey
U. CALIFORNIA
San Pedro
S. Diego
Loreto
Tropic of Cancer
C. St. Lucas
San Blas
Colima
Gila R.
Colorado R.
Rio Grande R.
Austin
N. Orleans
Chihuahua
Matamoras
Tampico
Vera Cruz
Merida
YUCATAN
Guatimala
ST. SALVADOR
Nicaragua
Mobile
Arkansas R.
Little Rock
St. Louis
Chicago
Detroit
L. Michigan
Iowa C.
Falls of St. Anthony
Mackinaw
L. Huron
L. Erie
Montreal
Boston
C. Cod
N. York
Philadelphia
Baltimore
WASHINGTON
Richmond
Norfolk
Raleigh
Charleston
Savannah
St. Augustine
C. Sable
Havana
Jamaica
Kingston
Porto Rico
Hudsons Str.
Davis Strait
Baffins Bay
Whale R.
Mosquito B.
James B.
E. Main R.
Saskatchawan R.
Peace R.
Rocky Mountains
Mackenzies R.
Gr. Bear L.
Cooks In.
C. Pr. of Wales
Metville I.
Barrow Str.
Disko I.
Holsteinburg
Lichtenfels
Lichtenau
C. Farewell
NEW FOUNDLAND
Halifax
NOVA SCOTIA
Montreal
Ontario
St. Lawrence R.
Superior
Huron
Michigan
Erie
Ohio R.
Mississippi
Missouri R.
Red R.
Arkansas R.
Cordilleras Mts.
INDIAN TER.
Texas
Florida
Alleghany
Appalachian
Washington
70
60
50
40
30
20
10
0
50 40 Lon. W. from 30 Washington 20 10 0
85 Waloti 83 82 Lon. W. from Washington 79 78
22
21
20
KAUAI
Kaula
NIIHAU
Kawaihoa
OAHU
Hakipeu
Waianae
Kaneohe
HONOLULU
MOLOKAI
Kawela
LANAI
Lahaina
MAUI
Wailuku
Wailua
Hana
Alena
Upola
Waipio
Kaulo
Puako
Kailua
KAHOOLAWE
HAWAII
Waiakea
Kula
Kaimea
Keaiakekua
Waichina
8500 miles to China
2650 miles to Oregon
PACIFIC OCEAN
SANDWICH ISLANDS
161 West from Greenwich 158 154

Volcanoes.—There are no known active volcanoes north of Mexico, except one in Lower California, but throughout Mexico and Guatemala a volcanic region extends to the subterranean fires manifested in the Andes.

Mineralogy.—North America is rich in coal, iron, and copper. Large masses of pure native copper are found on Lake Superior; iron, lead, and coal, abound in various parts of the United States, and the gold region of California seems inexhaustible.

Vegetable Kingdom.—But a small number of species are identical with the vegetation of Europe, Asia, or Africa. All kinds of bread corn grow in the regions south of 58° of latitude, which is the limit at which wheat ripens in North America. Maize thrives in every district from Canada to Mexico. The potato is indigenous to the American continent; rice, cotton, sugar, silk, and tobacco, arrive at perfection south of the 35th parallel, and the pine, fir, larch, cedar, ash, oak, elm, beech, birch, maple, walnut, and other timber-trees, form large forests in different parts of the continent.

Animal Kingdom.—Few of the existing race of large quadrupeds are indigenous to America; the elephant, rhinoceros, camelopard, camel, lion, tiger, leopard, hippopotamus, and other herbivorous and carnivorous animals, are here unknown. The white, or polar, and black bear, are found in the arctic and adjacent regions; further south, varieties of the deer tribe, the cariboo, bison, buffalo, wolf, fox, hare, opossum, beaver, and various fur-bearing animals abound, and the panther roams in the temperate zone. Birds are very numerous; many with splendid plumage, but without song. The ostrich is not known in America. The cayman, or crocodile, and the iguano, abound in Central America. Serpents and snakes exist in every part of the continent; the rattlesnake is peculiar to America. Insects are of great variety, and frogs and salamanders are found as far north as Mackenzie's river, in the 67th parallel.

Population.—The Anglo-Saxon race in North America number, in British America, about 2,500,000, and in the United States about 20,000,000. The negro population in the United States is composed of about 3,000,000 slaves, and 500,000 free blacks. The population of Mexico and Central America is probably about 9,000,000, of whom not more than 1,000,000 are whites, the remainder are Creoles and Indians. The whole number of full-blooded aborigines in North America is about 7,000,000. The total number of inhabitants, on the regions extending from the Hudson Bay Company's territories to the isthmus of Panama, probably does not exceed 40,000,000, and of these about 25,000,000 are of pure European blood.

DANISH POSSESSIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

The possessions of Denmark in North America are Greenland, Iceland, and Spitzbergen, with a number of smaller islands in the Arctic seas, that are noted mainly for the production of precious stones and valuable minerals, but are otherwise of no account in a commercial sense.

Greenland.—This extensive island lies to the northwest of the American continent, and is bounded on the west by Davis's straits, and on the east by the Atlantic ocean. Its most southerly point is Cape Farewell, in latitude 59° 49′ north. Its northern limits are not definitely known. It is of triangular shape, and its area is estimated at 350,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—Perpetual winter, interrupted only by a few weeks of warm weather, reigns over these desolate and dreary regions. The entire country is mountainous and rocky. A range of lofty mountains traverse its cen-

tre, dividing it into East and West Greenland. The eastern coast is rendered nearly inaccessible by ice. The western coast is high, rugged and barren. The entire coast is indented by bays, and interspersed with islands.

Minerals.—Rich copper ore, black lead, marble, asbestos, garnets, crystals, and other valuable stones are found here. Vegetation is almost suspended; its growth being limited to a few stunted trees, with mosses, lichens, grapes, &c.

Animal Kingdom.—Reindeer, polar bears, white hares, foxes, dogs, and seals, are found here. Sea-fowl, eagles, ravens, and other birds of prey, are also numerous.

Population.—The natives of Greenland are the Esquimaux. They are filthy, ignorant, and degraded, and seem to be reduced to the lowest degree of barbarism, living on fish and blubber, and clad in seal-skin, having no domestic animals, and displaying no art or skill, except in the construction and management of their frail canoes. They number about 20,000.

History.—In the early part of the tenth century an Icelander or Norwegian rover discovered the western coast of Greenland, having been driven toward it in a storm. Whether the scanty vegetation appeared to him delightful, after the hardship he had endured, or he wished to tempt his countrymen to visit it, is uncertain; but the inappropriate name of Greenland was given to and still continues the designation of a country aptly described as "one immense glacier." An Icelandic colony soon after settled there, which flourished three or four hundred years; but it became extinct from cold and pestilence in the fourteenth century. The first modern settlement was planted by Hans Egede, a Norwegian clergyman, in 1721. He was joined by the Moravian missionaries in 1733. After which the Danes began to frequent the coast, and eventually a number of settlements were formed which now rank as colonies of Denmark. There are about 300 Danish colonists and many natives in these settlements. The Danes procure, as articles of commerce, seal-skins, fur, eider-down, train-oil, whalebone, and fish.

Iceland lies about 200 miles to the east of Greenland, in the North Atlantic ocean. It is between 60° 30′ and 66° 40′ north latitude, and 16° and 23° west longitude from Greenwich. It is of irregular triangular shape, and has an area of about 40,000 square miles.

VOLCANO OF MOUNT HECLA, ICELAND.

Physical Aspect.—The island contains many lofty mountains, some of which are volcanic, presenting the singular spectacle of eternal fires bursting out through eternal snows. Glaciers, or icy summits, cover a great part of the island. The celebrated volcano, Hecla, is in the southwest, and about thirty miles inward. It is more remarkable for the frequency and violence of its eruptions than its height, being only 5,200 feet above the level of the ocean. There are upward of thirty other volcanoes in existence, which occasionally spread frightful desolation over the land. Twenty-three eruptions of Hecla are recorded by Europeans since their settlement in Iceland. Hot springs and boiling fountains abound, and are used for cooking by the inhabitants. In some parts of the island vast caldrons of boiling mud are in a state of constant ebullition, sending up columns of dense vapor, which obscure the atmosphere a great distance around. The volcano of Skaptar Jakul is 7,000 feet high.

Minerals.—Few minerals are met with. Iron and copper exist, but the mines are not worked. Sulphur is found in inexhaustible quantities, and formerly was largely exported.

Vegetable Kingdom.—Varieties of moss and lichen, with a few dwarf-beech and willow-trees, constitute almost the whole vegetation. The extensive forests with which tradition invests Iceland no longer exist.

Animal Kingdom.—Of wild animals, foxes, and reindeer, are most numerous. Polar bears, brought down on the ice, frequent the shore. Nearly all kinds of sea-fowl inhabit the coast and island. The eider-duck abounds here, and its feathers form an article of export.

Climate.—The climate is variable. Thunder is seldom heard, but storms of wind and rain are frequent, and fogs are perpetual. The sun is visible at midnight from the hills in midsummer, but the summer is very brief, and is succeeded by a long and sunless winter.

Food.—The principal articles of food are fish, butter, and milk, and bread is a luxury.

Agriculture is limited mostly to the growing of grass for the herds of cattle, with which the island abounds. There are no manufactures, except of a domestic nature, carried on. Every man, even to the bishop, and other high functionaries, makes his own shoes and clothes. Barter is the prevailing system in trade, money being scarcely known there. Those who live near the coasts bring dried cod and stock fish, dried salmon, whale, shark and seal oils, seal-skins, &c.

Population.—Iceland has a population of about 60,000. The Icelanders are chiefly of Norwegian origin, and have a frank, open countenance, florid complexion, and flaxen hair. They have retained, with few innovations, the ancient modes of life and the costume of the Scandinavian race. Their dwellings are filthy, and repulsive to strangers.

Capital.—Reikjavik, the capital, on the southwest coast, has about 900 inhabitants, mostly Danes. It contains a printing-office, lyceum, library of 5,000 volumes, and several learned societies. The only permanent settlements are near the coasts.

Education.—The Icelanders are Lutherans, and are remarkable for their strict morals. There are few who can not read and write, and most of them are well educated. The language is Scandinavian, and is rich in poetry and prose. There was a printing-press established here in 1530, the first ever established in America.

History.—The first discovery of Iceland, authenticated by history, was made about the year 860, by some adventurous Norwegian and Swedish rovers. The first colony was planted here in 875. In fifty years afterward, all the coasts were occupied by settlers, and about 928 the inhabitants formed themselves into a republic. They maintained their independence for nearly 400

years; but in the thirteenth century became subject to Norway, and, on the annexation of that kingdom to Denmark, Iceland was transferred along with it, and has since remained a colonial dependency of that nation.

Spitzbergen, or Pointed Mountains, is a group of four islands, lying about midway between Nova Zembla and Greenland, between 76° and 81° north latitude and 3° and 9° east longitude from Greenwich. There are four principal islands, viz., Spitzbergen proper, Northeast Land, Southeast Land, and Charles Foreland, the last-named lying west of the others. In addition to these there are numerous other smaller ones lying around them.

Physical Aspect.—Innumerable rocks and inlets surround the entire coast, which is indented by capacious bays and fiords. These islands rise in places into mountains from 1,000 to 4,000 feet in height, the peaks covered with eternal snow. The coasts are iron-bound, presenting but few good harbors.

Products.—The surface is mostly destitute of any animal or vegetable products; but there are a few bears and foxes which live upon fish. Spitzbergen was formerly a whaling station, but is now seldom visited.

History.—These islands were discovered in 1535. The sovereignty of Denmark over Spitzbergen is only nominal. It is also claimed by Russia. It has no stationary population.

RUSSIAN POSSESSIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

This territory comprises an extensive region of the northwest part of North America, of which very little is known, except along the western coast. It extends from Behring's straits eastward to the meridian of Mount St. Elias, along both the Arctic and Pacific oceans; and from that mountain southward, along the coast chain of hills, till it touches the coast about 54° 40′ north latitude, comprising an area of about 400,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The Russian possessions are chiefly mountainous. Mount St. Elias is the most lofty peak, being 17,860 feet in height. The coast line is irregular, being indented by large bays, formed by bold promontories and peninsulas.

Climate.—The climate of Russian America is very severe, though not so extreme as is felt in similar latitudes on the eastern coasts. The country is subject to sudden changes, and frequent falls of rain in summer, and of snow in winter.

Islands.—The Aleutian islands, stretching from the peninsula of Kamschatka in Asia to Cape Alaska in North America, may be considered as belonging to this region. They are very numerous, occupying a circular area, extending from 165° to 195° east longitude from Greenwich. They are of volcanic origin, and are at the present day subject to eruptions.

Commerce.—The Russia Fur Company have a few factories on the coast and islands, but almost the whole country is occupied by various native tribes, chiefly Esquimaux. The commerce is mainly limited to the exportation of furs to Canton, and the import of provisions and agricultural supplies from the British possessions. It is of little value, and is constantly declining, as the sea-otter and seal are becoming comparatively scarce.

Capital.—New Archangel (or Baranoff), a place of about 1,000 inhabitants, is the residence of the governor.

Population.—The total population is estimated at about 70,000, including the aborigines.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

The British possessions in America comprise an area of about 2,500,000 square miles: their extreme length between east and west, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, is 3,000 miles; and from north to south, 2,000 miles. The boundaries of this vast region are, on the north the Arctic ocean and the adjacent seas and islands, many of them yet unexplored; on the northwest, Russian America; on the west, the Pacific ocean; on the south the United States; and on the east, the Atlantic ocean.

The southern boundary is defined by an irregular line drawn from the extreme end of Vancouver's island, extending along the parallel of 49° north to the head of Lake Superior, thence through the centre of that lake and the centres of Lakes Huron, St. Clair, and Erie, the falls of Niagara, and Lake Ontario to St. Regis on the St. Lawrence, 60 miles southwest of Montreal, thence along the parallel of 45° north to some highlands, which divide the waters that flow into the Atlantic from those that flow into the St. Lawrence; thence to the source of the St. Croix, and to the mouth of that river in Passamaquoddy bay in the gulf of Fundy. The whole country lies between the parallels of 51° 77′ and 78° or 80° north, and the meridians of 52° and 141° west from Greenwich.

The British territory is divided into the provinces or districts known as New Britain (Hudson's Bay Company's territories), the Canadas (East and West, or Lower and Upper), New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, Prince Edward island, Newfoundland, the coast of Labrador, Vancouver's, Queen Charlotte, and other islands and districts west of the Rocky mountains.

The relative position and condition of the several divisions of the British territory, will be seen in the following tabular view:—

Divisions of British North America.	Area in Sq. Miles.	Population.	Annual Revenue.	Value of Imports.	Tonnage Entered.
			$.	$.	Tons.
Canada East	202,000	890,000	3,000,000	12,500,000	1,000,000
Canada West	148,000	950,000			
New Brunswick	27,800	195,000	650,000	6,000,000	450,000
Nova Scotia	15,000	250,000	600,000	5,500,000	420,000
Cape Breton Isle	3,100	30,000			
Prince Edward Isle	2,100	65,000	125,000	750,000	50,000
Newfoundland	40,000	100,000	350,000	4,300,000	125,000
New Britain	2,000,000	200,000	50,000	500,000	20,000
Vancouver's Island	15,000	5,000			
Total	2,453,000	2,685,000	4,775,000	29,550,000	2,065,300

History.—The honor of discovering that portion of the western hemisphere which constitutes British America, is due to John Cabot, who, under the authority of Henry VII., of England, in 1497, entered the gulf of St. Lawrence, visited the adjacent coasts, and claimed them in the name of the master he served. No permanent efforts at colonization were made by the English, but the region termed Canada (from *Kanata*, a collection of huts) was seized by the French in 1541; and after many reverses the colonists from France successively established themselves at Quebec, Montreal, and other places along the river St. Lawrence; and as far as Lake Erie, in Western or Upper Canada. The French were, however, engaged in constant hostilities with the adjacent New England (now United States) colonists, and in 1759, the combined British and provincial forces, under General Wolfe, captured Quebec, and drove the French entirely out of Canada, which has ever since remained a province of the British empire.

NEW BRITAIN.

The northwest territories of British America, exclusive of Canada, extend from the Pacific ocean and Vancouver's island along the parallel of 49° north latitude, near to the head of Lake Superior, and thence in a northeasterly direction to the coast of Labrador and the Atlantic. The Arctic ocean forms the northern boundary. The length of this vast region is about 2,600 miles, and its breadth nearly 1,460 miles. Its area is about 2,000,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—A large portion of the country east of the Rocky mountains consists of inland seas, bays, lakes, rivers, swamps, treeless hills and hollows, "tossed together in a wave-like form, as if the ocean had been suddenly petrified while heaving its huge billows in a tumultuous swell." The coast of Labrador, from 50° to 60° north latitude, and from 56° to 78° west longitude, so far as we know, is formed of rocks, lakes, swamps, and mountains. The Rocky mountains have their northern extremity in the Arctic ocean, latitude 70° north, longitude 140° west, and run nearly south-southeast, parallel with the west coast, forming the eastern boundary of the Oregon region, sending off, at different places, spurs and buttresses, and dividing the waters that flow into the Atlantic from those that flow into the Pacific. Viewing, therefore, the whole of the territories between the Rocky mountains and Hudson's bay, north of the 49th parallel, as one region, it may be considered as a series of lakes, rivers, and plains, with a gradual elevation from east to west. The northern territory is intersected with lakes, marshes, and rivers, to a greater extent than any part of the known globe; and it would seem as if the inner springs of the earth there burst forth. Some parts investigated are truly regions of desolation: vegetation ceased in the latitude of 60° north; no land is seen capable of cultivation; the whole surface is rugged and uneven, and the open valleys nearly devoid of all vegetable productions.

The settlement on the Red river, distant from Montreal, by the Ottawa river, about 1,800 miles, in latitude 50° north, longitude 97° west, is elevated 800 feet above the sea, in a level country, contiguous to the wooded borders of the Red and Assiniboine rivers, along which the settlement extends for fifty miles. The soil is comparatively fertile, and the climate salubrious. The two principal churches, the protestant and Roman catholic, the jail, the Hudson's Bay Company's chief buildings, the residence of the Roman catholic bishop, and the houses of some retired officers of the fur trade, are built of stone, which has to be brought from a distance. The population of the Red river settlement, is about 8,000.

History.—In 1517, Sebastian Cabot, while in search of the northwest passage, penetrated into Hudson's bay, but without discovering it to be an enclosed sea. In 1585, Davis, while prosecuting a similar investigation, discovered the straits called by his name. In 1610, Hudson sailed through the strait, and into the bay named from him Fretum Hudson, "the Hudson sea." In 1616, Baffin traced the outlines of another great bay, to which his name was given. Prince Rupert, the duke of Albemarle, earl of Craven, Lord Ashley, and others, formed a company and commenced a traffic in furs, for which purpose $50,000 was subscribed. A charter of incorporation was granted by Charles II. The Hudson's Bay Company now consists of 240 proprietors, representing a capital stock of $20,000,000. The affairs of the corporation are managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and committee, and have about 136 establishments, besides hunting expeditions and shipping, affording employment to 1,500 persons, besides occasional labor in boating and other services of a great number of the natives. Their forts, or stockaded positions, extend from the coast of Labrador

westward to the Pacific, and from the northern boundaries of Canada to the confines of the Arctic ocean.

Vancouver's Island.—This island is situated on the west coast of America, between 48° 17′ and 50° 55′ north latitude, and 123° 10′ and 128° 30′ west longitude, and 290 miles long, with an average breadth of 55 miles. We know little of the interior of the country: it is said to be intersected by high mountain ranges, with extensive prairies, a rich soil, abundantly timbered with oak, pine, &c., and well watered, adapted for the cultivation of wheat and other grain, with a fine climate, and many excellent harbors. The shores of the island are generally high, steep, rocky, and covered with wood. Fort Victoria, the chief establishment, in 48° 26′ north latitude, and 123° 9′ west longitude, is on the south shore, near the head of a narrow inlet, termed the port of Camosack, or Cammusan, around which there is a range of plains to an extent of nearly six square miles, containing valuable tillage and pasture-land, and water-power for flour and saw-mills. Coal is found in seams ten to eighteen inches thick, some below high-water mark, others sixty feet above the sea. It yields coke in the proportion of fifty two per cent. The extent of the coal-field inland is supposed to be considerable, and it stretches over all the northeast coast. There is excellent anchorage in the neighborhood, which may be approached by way of Cape Scott, thus avoiding the difficult and dangerous navigation of Sir George Seymour's narrows and Johnstone's straits. The natives, on the island amount to about 5,000 in number. Vancouver's island is in possession of the Hudson's Bay Company.

The **Northwestern Archipelago**, which lies north of Vancouver's island, belongs partly to England and partly to Russia. The islands within the British dominions are of various sizes; the largest, named "Queen Charlotte's island," is somewhat of a triangular form, lying nearly north and south, the south point in the parallel of 52°. The superficial area is less than that of Vancouver's island: it has several good harbors. Of the interior of the whole of these islands little or nothing is known; the largest are traversed by mountain ridges in the direction of their greatest length from southeast to northwest. The adjacent coast is of very irregular outline, with numerous bays, inlets, and channels, forming a labyrinth of passages.

The Indian Population.—It is difficult to describe the character of the various tribes; they have each some recognised difference, and are most of them in a constant state of warfare with each other. Ambuscades, surprises by day or night, and treacherous massacres of the old and young, of women and the sick, constitute the moving interests of their lives. No hardships or inducements will make them settle and cultivate their land; and until they do so, it is almost hopeless to expect any Christian results from the humane efforts of the Hudson's Bay Company and the missionaries. The most degrading superstitions prevail; cunning is employed where force can not be used in plunder; lying is systematic; woman is treated as a slave; and the wild Indian is, in many respects, more savage than the animals around him.

Prince Edward Island (formerly called St. John's) is situated in a recess or bay in the gulf of St. Lawrence, and lies between 45° 50′ and 47° 7′ north latitude, and between 62° and 64° 27′ west longitude. It is separated on the west from New Brunswick, on the south from Nova Scotia, and on the east from Cape Breton, by the straits of Northumberland. Its exceedingly irregular outline somewhat resembles a crescent in its general appearance, the concave side being toward the gulf, into which its boundary capes project.

Physical Aspect.—The general appearance of Prince Edward island is extremely pleasing, though it has nothing of the romantic boldness which characterizes the northern shores of the gulf. The surface, like that of New Bruns-

wick, gently undulates, without any absolutely flat country, but nowhere reaches the elevation of mountains, the principal high lands being a chain of hills traversing the island nearly north to south, from De Sable to Greenville Bay. The whole island was once covered with forests of beech, birch, maple, poplar, spruce, fir, hemlock, larch, and cedar; and although the labors of the lumbermen, the progress of cultivation, and many destructive fires, have greatly thinned their rich luxuriance, yet still they spring up spontaneously and adorn the land, which is clothed in verdure to the very edge of the water. The constant action of the strong tidal waters of the gulf of St. Lawrence, has caused the island to be indented and intersected by bays, creeks, and inlets, which are so numerous and extensive, that scarce any part of the territory is more than eight miles distant from tide water. Of the numerous harbors the principal is that on which the capital, Charlotte town (population 6,000), is built, situate on the southeast side of the island, at the bottom of Hillsborough bay.

CANADA.

Canada is situated between 42° and 51° north latitude, and 61° and 84° west longitude from Greenwich, with an area of about 350,000 square miles. In 1791 Canada was divided into two provinces. Eastern or Lower Canada, which extended from Ottawa river to the Atlantic, was chiefly occupied by the early French settlers and their descendants; and Western or Upper Canada, which extended in a westerly direction along the great lakes, to the head of Lake Superior, and to which the refugee loyalists from the United States, and emigrants from Britain, chiefly resorted. In 1841 the two provinces, for legislative purposes, were reunited.

Physical Aspect.—The natural features of Canada partake of the most romantic sublimities and picturesque beauties; indeed, the least imaginative beholder can not fail to be struck with the alternations of ranges of mountains, magnificent rivers, immense lakes, boundless forests, extensive prairies, and foaming cataracts. The eastern parts of Canada are bold, mountainous, and covered with forests on both sides of the St. Lawrence; east and north of Montreal the country becomes flat or gently undulating.

Rivers.—The St. Lawrence and Ottawa are the principal; there are several minor streams flowing into them and into the great lakes, of which the St. Lawrence is the outlet to the ocean. The river St. Lawrence, from the magnificent basin of Lake Superior in Canada East, has a course to the sea of 2,000 miles, and a varying breadth of 1 to 100 miles. It is navigable for ships of a large class about 1,000 miles, and the remainder of its course for barges, batteaux, and vessels drawing little water, of from ten to fifteen and even sixty tons burthen. It receives in its majestic course most of the rivers that have their sources in the extensive range of mountains called the Land's Height; and also those intersecting the ridge which commences on its south bank, and runs nearly southwest to Lake Champlain. From the sea to Kingston, where it receives the waters of Lake Ontario, this river is called the St. Lawrence; between Lakes Ontario and Erie, the Niagara; between Lakes Erie and St. Clair, the Detroit; between Lakes St. Clair and Huron, the St. Clair; and between Lakes Huron and Superior the distance is called the Narrows, or falls of St. Mary. The Ottawa, or Grand river, which was formerly a boundary line between Upper and Lower Canada, has a course of 550 miles from its source near Lake Temiseaming to its union with the St. Lawrence, near Montreal,

where it disemboguges. The navigation is impeded by rapids. The Saguenay, St. Maurice or Three-Rivers, Champlain, Chaudière, St. Francis, and Richelieu, are all fine rivers; useful for navigation to a limited extent, from the northern or southern shores of the St. Lawrence. In Canada West, the Thames, Severn, and other streams, do not afford much inland navigation, which is, however, amply provided for by the great lakes. The falls of Niagara, by which Lake Erie empties its waters into Lake Ontario, form one of the finest sights in the world, viewed from the Canada side.

Canals.—The Rideau, extending from Kingston, on Lake Ontario, to Bytown, on Ottawa river, was built to avoid the dangerous rapids of the St. Lawrence, between the lake and Montreal. The Welland canal is a noble structure, uniting Lakes Erie and Ontario, and giving the provinces an unobstructed sloop navigation for the commerce of the western states.

Climate.—A region of such extent as Canada has necessarily great variety of temperature; in Eastern Canada the winter is severe, and snow lies on the ground for several months; in Western Canada the climate is much milder.

Chief Cities.—Quebec and Montreal, in Canada East, and Kingston and Toronto, in Canada West. Quebec, the seat of her majesty's government, on an eminence 350 feet above the St. Lawrenee, is the strongest fortress on the American continent; and, well defended, may be deemed impregnable: population, 42,000. Montreal, 600 miles from the sea, is a handsome commercial city, at the head of ship navigation on the St. Lawrence: population, 60,000. Kingston, 180 miles from Montreal, on Lake Ontario, has a fine harbor, and is strongly fortified: population, 12,000. Toronto, 184 miles from Kingston, near the northwestern extremity of Lake Ontario, is a flourishing and well-built city: population, 31,000. There are several other thriving towns—especially in Canada West—viz., Hamilton, 14,000; Bytown, 8,000; London, 7,000; Guelph, Niagara, Queenston, Peterborough, &c. The Canada Company have a fine tract of about one million acres, near Lake Huron; and they have established several thriving settlements. The eastern townships in Canada East, belonging to the British American Land Company, are rapidly increasing in prosperity. Three Rivers, and Sorel or William Henry, towns on the St. Lawrence, between Quebec and Montreal, are picturesque and well-situated.

Population, &c., of Canada West.

Counties.	Area sq. miles.	Pop. 1852.	Chief Towns.
1. Addington	576	15,165	Bath.
2. Brant	416	25,426	Brantford.
3. Bruce	992	2,837	Penatangore.
4. Carleton	898	31,397	Bytown.
5. Durham	620	30,732	Port Hope.
6. Dundas	377	13,811	Williamsburg
7. Elgin	703	25,418	St. Thomas.
8. Essex	677	16,817	Sandwich.
9. Frontenac	1,342	30,735	Kingston.
10. Glengary	450	17,596	Alexandria.
11. Gray	2,321	13,217	Durham.
12. Grenville	421	20,707	Prescott.
13. Haldimand	459	18,788	Cayuga.
14. Halton	362	18,322	Wellington, S.
15. Hastings	1,324	31,977	Belleville.
16. Huron	1,392	19,198	Goderich.
17. Kent	870	17,469	Chatham.
18. Lambton	1,093	10,815	Sarnia.
19. Lanark	1,180	27,317	Perth.
20. Leeds	805	30,280	Brockville.
21. Lenox	170	7,955	Napance.
22. Lincoln	306	23,868	Niagara.
23. Middlesex	1,079	39,899	London.
24. Northumberland	730	31 229	Cobourg.
25 Norfolk	600	21,281	Simcoe.
26. Ontario	851	30,576	Oshawa.
27. Oxford	710	32,638	Woodstock.
28. Peel	458	24,816	Brampton.
29. Perth	698	15,545	Stratford.
30. Peterborough	1,005	15,237	Peterborough.
31. Prescott	475	10,487	L'Original.
32. Prince Edward	334	18,887	Picton.
33. Renfrew	1,133	9,415	McNab.
34. Russell	379	2,870	
35. Simcoe	1,797	27.165	Barrie.
36. Stormont	391	14,643	Cornwall.
37. Victoria	749	11,657	Metcalfe.
38. Waterloo	513	26,537	Berlin.
39. Wellington	1,237	26,796	Guelph.
40. Welland	356	20.141	Chippewa.
41. Wentworth	426	42,619	Hamilton.
42. York	808	79,719	Toronto.
Total	32,492	952,004	

Canada East.

Counties.	1252.	Counties.	1852.
1. Beauharnois	40,213	20. Ottawa	22,903
2. Bellechasse	17,982	21. Portneuf	19,366
3. Berthier	34,668	22. Quebec	61,526
4. Bonaventure	10,844	23. Richelieu	25,686
5. Chambly	20,576	24. Rimousky	26,882
6. Champlain	13,896	25. Rouville	27,031
7. Dorchester	43,105	26. Saguenay	20,783
8. Drummond	16,562	27. St. Maurice	25,563
9. Gaspé	10,904	28. St. Hyacinthe	30,623
10. Huntingdon	40,645	29. Shefford	16,482
11. Kamouraska	20,396	30. Sherbrooke	20,014
12. Leinster	29,690	31. Stanstead	13,898
13. L'Islet	19,641	32. Terrebonne	26,791
14. Lotbinière	16 657	33. Two Mountains	3,0470
15. Megantic	13,835	34. Vaudreuil	21,429
16. Missisquoi	13,484	35. Vercheres	14,393
17. Montmorency	9.598	36. Yamaska	14,748
18. Montreal	77,381		
19. Nicolet	19,657	Total	890,262

CANADA
Longitude West 76 from Greenwich
Longitude West from 1 Washington
3 East from Washington
Scale of Miles
20 40 60 80 100
LAKE HURON
GEORGIAN BAY
LAKE ONTARIO
LAKE ERIE
MICHIGAN
NEW YORK
VERMONT
NEW HAMPSHIRE
MASSACHUSETTS
Nipissing Lake
Ottawa or Grand R.
Cedar L.
Mississaga L.
Madawaska R.
OTTAWA COUNTY
BATHURST
DALHOUSIE
OTTAWA
VAUDREUIL
EASTERN
JOHNSTOWN
MIDLAND
VICTORIA
COLBORNE
SIMCOE
WELLINGTON
HURON
HOME
NEWCASTLE
GORE
BROCK
LONDON
TALBOT
NIAGARA
WESTERN
THREE RIVERS
MONTREAL
SHERBROOKE
QUEBEC
Bytown
Perth
Kingston
Belleville
Toronto
Hamilton
Guelph
London
Woodstock
Stratford
Goderich
Barrie
Montreal
Three Rivers
Sorel
Chambly
St. Johns
Philipsburg
L. Memphremagog
Prescott
Ogdensburg
Brockville
Watertown
Sackets Harbour
Oswego
Rochester
Syracuse
Utica
Albany
Troy
Buffalo
Niagara
Queenston
Dunkirk
Erie
Plattsburg
Burlington
Montpelier
Middlebury
Whitehall
Rutland
Concord
Lowell
Guildhall
St. Albans
L. Champlain
Connecticut R.
Hudson R.
Mohawk R.
Detroit
Lake St. Clair
Sandwich
Malden
Amherstburg
Thames R.
Port Talbot
Long Pt.
R. St. Lawrence
Chaudiere R.
L. St. Peter
Orleans

NATIVITIES OF THE INHABITANTS.

Lower Canada.		*Upper Canada.*	
England & Wales..11,230	Canada, F'h origin.669,528	England & Wales,..82,699	Canada, F'h origin..26,417
Scotland. 14,565	Not French origin..125,580	Scotland 75,811	Not French origin.526,093
Ireland.....51,499	United States.....12,482	Ireland.....176,267	United States.....43,732
	Other Countries... 5,377		Other Countries...20,985

The character of the inhabitants of Canada partakes of the source whence they spring—if of French descent, levity and obsequiousness give place to ease, or rather gentleness of manner, combined with manly, yet respectful freedom of deportment: the descendants of the English lose the rusticity and boorishness peculiar to the lower class of their ancestors; and with abundance of the necessaries of life, and leisure for the improvement of their minds, the natural saturnine character of the British is relieved by a pleasing buoyancy of spirit and enthusiasm of action. The offspring of the original French inhabitants form about one half of the population.

Government.—1. A house of assembly, consisting of eighty-four members, chosen by electors possessing a property qualification. 2. A legislative council, of forty-five to fifty members, nominated by the crown for life, or *quamdiu se bene gesserunt.* 3. An executive council, of eleven official members, heads of departments, also freely elected by the people to the house of assembly; this council forms the ministry of the governor-general, and is changed whenever it can not command a majority in the house of assembly.

Revenue.—The annual revenue of the province is derived from *custom* duties, about $2,000,000, of which one third is yielded by the inland ports on the lakes, and United States frontier; the remainder consists of sea customs. The *excise* yields $150,000 a year, the *tolls* from public works $250,000, and the territorial revenue about $100,000.

Commerce.—Quebec and Montreal are the seaports of Canada. There is a large inland trade between Canada and the United States.

Produce.—Chiefly agricultural. Land in cultivation in Canada East, about 3,600,000 acres; in Canada West, 3,700 000 acres.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

New Brunswick forms an eastern section of the American continent, and is situated between 45° 5′ and 48° 20′ north latitude, and between 63° 50′ and 68° west longitude from Greenwich. It is bounded on the north by Chaleurs bay, in the gulf of St. Lawrence, and the Ristigouche river; on the south and southeast by the bays of Fundy, Chignecto, and the narrow peninsula which prevents Nova Scotia from being entirely insulated; on the east by Northumberland straits, which separate it from Prince Edward island and the gulf of St. Lawrence; and on the west by the state of Maine.

Physical Aspect.—There is much variety of scenery, marked by several distinguishing features. The greater part of the surface undulates boldly, forming several continuous ridges of high land. The elevations are seldom of any considerable height, yet their precipitous acclivities, sharply defined outline, and deep ravines, give them an Alpine character, while the rich valleys, sheltered plains, and noble forests, through which rivers and lakes wind in every direction, offer many a cheering prospect to the eye of the intending settler, by the promise of speedy and abundant return to diligent labor. The greater part of New Brunswick is still an uncultivated, though beautiful wilderness, containing abundance of fine timber and extensive prairies.

Rivers.—The chief river, the St. John, disembogues in the bay of Fundy. For 85 miles, up to Frederickton, the capital, it is navigable for vessels of fifty

tons ; thence barks of twenty tons can ascend to the Grand Falls, which are 125 miles higher ; above them it is only useful for boats. The Miramichi is second only to the St. John in extent and importance, and with its numerous tributaries drains a vast tract of country. The Ristigouche is also a fine stream.

Capital.—The city of St. John (population 36,000), in 45° 20′ north latitude, 66° 3′ west longitude, is built on a rocky peninsula projecting into the harbor at the mouth of the noble river of the same name, and from its favorable position is the emporium of the inland trade of a great part of New Brunswick. Much labor has been employed in levelling the streets, but several of them are still inconveniently, and in winter even dangerously, steep. That division of the city nearest the entrance of the harbor is called Lower Cove. The principal wharfs, docks, and warehouses, are situated farther to the north. The whole shore is lined with timber ponds, booms, and ship-yards, which receive the numerous rafts floated down the river.

History.—New Brunswick originally formed a portion of the French Acadia ; but in 1761 (after the conquest of Quebec) it was colonized by British settlers.

NOVA SCOTIA AND CAPE BRETON.

The peninsula of Nova Scotia and the island of Cape Breton together form one of the provinces of British North America, and are separated by a narrow strait, through which the waters of the gulf of St. Lawrence partly escape.

Nova Scotia is situated between 43° 25′ and 46° north latitude, and 61° and 66° 30′ west longitude from Greenwich. On the northwest and north it is bounded by the bays of Fundy and Chignecto, the boundary line which separates it from the county of Westmoreland in New Brunswick, Bay Vert, and the Northumberland strait, which divides it from Prince Edward island ; on the east by the gulf of St. Lawrence and the gut of Canso, which separates it from Cape Breton island ; and on the south and west by the Atlantic ocean. Its extreme length from east to west is about 283 miles ; breadth varies greatly : between Chester and Black Rock pier it being about fifty miles, and between Bristol bay and the head of Bay Vert, 104. It is connected with the continent by an isthmus only eight miles wide.

Physical Aspect.—Above 3,000 square miles, occupied by lakes and rivers of various shapes and sizes, so distributed that there is no point in the province thirty miles from navigable water. The face of the country is pleasingly diversified with hill and dale, but the elevations are of inconsiderable height ; the highland ranges seldom exceed 500 feet above the level of the sea, and run through the country generally from east to west.

History.—Probably discovered by the Cabots ; colonized by the French in 1604, and called Acadia ; their settlements destroyed by the English in 1614. In 1621 a large tract was granted to Sir William Alexander, who called the peninsula by its present name. For several years it was occupied by French and by English, who were in constant warfare ; and until 1763 these two nations, with varying success, held the country alternately. It was then, however, definitely given over to the English, in whose possession it has since remained.

Lakes.—Numerous. The largest is Lake Rossignol, thirty miles in length. Lake George, another lake of considerable size, is situate in the township of Yarmouth.

Rivers.—Principal the Shubenacadie and the Annapolis. The former fine

stream is navigable for large vessels some distance into the interior, its banks are adorned with extensive groves of lofty timber, and contain inexhaustible stores of gypsum and lime; the scenery is picturesque; varied by the abrupt frowning cliff with its woody summit, the verdant and cultivated vale, the wilderness with its deep solitudes, and the busy hum of civilized society. The rise and fall of the tide at the mouth of this river is about fifty feet. The Annapolis is navigable for large vessels for twenty miles above Annapolis, and forty above Digby. The country along the banks of the Avon is extremely beautiful; the luxuriance of the meadows; the frequent changes of scenery; the chain of high hills on the south and west, clothed with variegated foliage, and the white sails of vessels passing rapidly through the serpentine windings of the Avon and St. Croix, are some of the leading features of the landscape.

Harbors.—In number, capacity, and security, the harbors of Nova Scotia are unsurpassed, if not unequalled, by those of any other country of similar extent. Between Halifax and Cape Canso are twelve ports, capable of receiving ships-of-the-line, and there are fourteen others of sufficient depth for merchantmen. Pictou, on the northern shore, celebrated for its extensive coal-fields, has also a fine harbor.

Capital.—The capital of Nova Scotia is Halifax, situated in 44° 40′ north, and longitude 63° 31′ west from Greenwich. The city is delightfully located on the slope of a rising ground facing the bay on the eastern or more accessible side of the peninsula. The harbor extends north by west about sixteen miles, and terminates in a beautiful sheet of water called Bedford Basin, which contains ten square miles of safe anchorage. Halifax has about 30,000 inhabitants, possesses considerable wealth and trade, and is a central point for the fishing trade, and also for the foreign commerce of Nova Scotia. It is the British North American station for the Cunard line of steamships, which sail between Liverpool, and Boston and New York. The town has an intrenchment, and is strengthened with forts of timber. At the northern extremity is a naval dépôt, supplied with stores of every kind for the royal navy. Halifax was settled by the British in 1749.

Government.—Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward's island, and Newfoundland, are all governed on the same plan as Canada, with a separate lieutenant-governor over each colony.

Cape Breton Island lies between 45° 27′ and 47° 5′ north latitude (including Madame, Scatari, Bouladrie, St. Paul's, and other minor islands), and between 59° 38′ and 61° 50′ west longitude, its extreme length from northeast to southwest being about one hundred miles, and its extreme breadth from southeast to northwest about eighty miles.

Topography.—Cape Breton is divided into two peninsulas by the great inlet of the sea termed Bras d'Or lake, which ramifies in the most singular and romantic manner throughout the island, and at one point approaches within a mile of the Atlantic on the opposite coast. The portions of Cape Breton thus separated strikingly contrast with each other, that on the north being high, bold, and steep, with dangerous coasts, whose rocky and often perpendicular cliffs have a grand but forbidding aspect, which is rarely relieved by harbors; while that on the south is low, undulating, and intersected by numerous streams, but gradually rises from the interior shore of the Bras d'Or, until it presents abrupt cliffs toward the ocean. Sydney, the capital, is beautifully situated at the head of a fine bay, on a narrow but somewhat elevated tongue of land, stretching into the extensive inlet which forms its secure and capacious harbor. The island of Cape Breton, possesses valuable coal mines.

History.—Colonized by the French, who made Louisburg a strong fortification; it was captured by the English in 1758, in whose possession it has since remained.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

The island of Newfoundland is situated on the northeast side of the main entrance to the gulf of St. Lawrence, between 46° 40′ and 51° 39′ north latitude, and between 52° 44′ and 59° 31′ west longitude. It is divided from the coast of Labrador on the north, and northeast by the straits of Belle Isle; its southwestern extremity approaches within fifty miles of Cape Breton, and on the northwest the gulf of St. Lawrence separates it from Canada. Newfoundland is the nearest to Europe of any part of America; the distance from St. Johns', in Newfoundland, to Port Valentia, on the west coast of Ireland, being 1,656 miles. Newfoundland is noted for the most productive cod-fishery in the world; more than 3,000 vessels, and 40,000 men, of various nations, being employed in the trade.

Topography.—Newfoundland stands on an immense bank, in length about 600 miles, and in breadth about 200 miles, with soundings varying from twenty-five to ninety-five fathoms; the base being a mass of solid rock. There are apparently two banks, the outer one lying within 44° 10′ and 47° 30′ north latitude, and within 44° 15′ and 45° 25′ west longitude, with soundings varying from 100 to 150 fathoms. Newfoundland is in form nearly an equi-lateral triangle, the apex being to the northward, and the base extending east and west, between Cape Ray and Cape Race. The coast is everywhere indented, at intervals of two or three miles, by broad and deep bays, innumerable harbors, coves, creeks, and rivers. The shores are all rocky, with pebble beaches, often covered with stunted wood nearly to the water's edge; and lofty headlands on the southwest side. The interior of the island appears to be rocky, with numerous tracts of moss; much intersected by rivers and lakes, and but thinly wooded, except on the banks of the rivers, where poplars, birches, and spruce firs, grow. The British settlements are mostly confined to the coast line.

Capital.—St. Johns, the capital, is situated on the open eastern coast, in 47° 33′ 33″ north latitude, and 52° 45′ 10″ west longitude. The harbor is spacious and secure, everywhere, excepting toward its termination, of great depth, having upward of ninety feet in the centre, and land-locked by high hills, which on its south side afford no shore, and on its north admit a strand, built over with warehouses and wharfs. St. Johns is a place of considerable strength, from both its natural position and the fortifications erected for its protection.

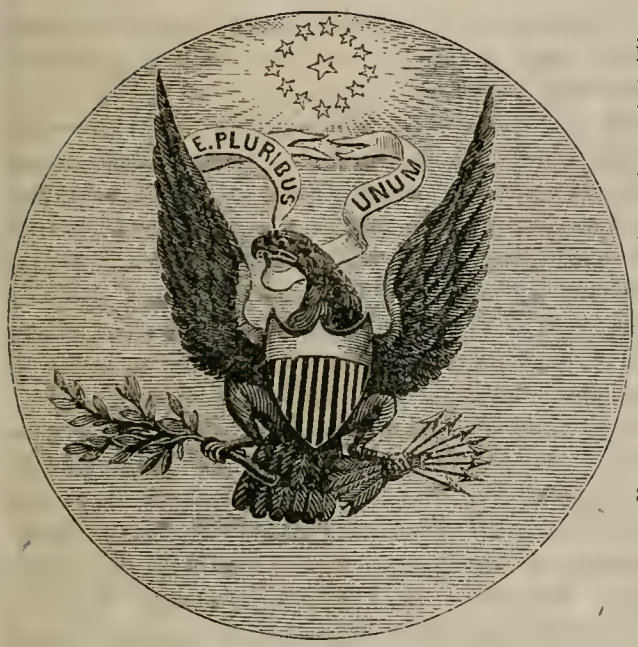
History.—Newfoundland is the oldest colony of England; British government was established at St. John's in 1583, by Sir Humphrey Gilbert, under the orders of Queen Elizabeth.

FRENCH POSSESSIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

Something more than a century since, France held possession of nearly half of the North American continent. But from time to time, through conquest, cession, or purchase, portions of its territory have been parted with, till at present three small desert islands are all that can be included under the name of "French Possessions in North America." The three islands referred to are St. Pierre, and Grand and Petit Miquelon, situated near the south coast of Newfoundland. They were ceded to the French in 1763. They are of no importance, other than as fishing stations for French vessels. A treaty of reciprocity between the French government and the United States, in regard to these islands, was entered into in 1847. They are under the charge of a governor, who resides at the town of St. Pierre, on the island of that name.

12/7
12/2
11/7
11/2
10/7
Lon. West from Greenwich
8/7
8/2
7/7
7/2
6/7
BRITISH AMERICA
CANADA EAST
CANADA WEST
NEW BRUNSWICK
MAINE
Augusta
VERMONT
NEW HAMPSHIRE
Montpelier
Concord
MASS.
Boston
Cape Cod
CONN.
RHODE ISLAND
NEW YORK
Albany
Utica
L. Ontario
Lake Erie
PENNSYLVANIA
Harrisburg
Philadelphia
Pittsburg
Cleveland
Detroit
Lake Huron
Lake Michigan
Green Bay
Madison
Racine
Galena
Chicago
Dubuque
Iowa City
Burlington
Nauvoo
Michigan Z.
Indianapolis
Columbus
Cincinnati
Springfield
Palmyra
Alton
Madison
Louisville
Frankford
Jefferson C.
St. Louis
Ohio R.
Kentucky
Abingdon
Richmond
Petersburg
Annapolis
WASHINGTON
DELAWARE
Cape May
CHESAPEAKE
Albemarle Sd.
Hatteras
Pamlico Sound
Cape Lookout
Wilmington
Georgetown
Sumter R.
Charleston
Savannah R.
St. Augustine
Tallahassee
Mobile
Natchez
Orleans
Baton Rouge
Jackson
Natchitoches
Nacogdoches
Brazos R.
Austin
Galveston B.
San Antonio de Bexar
Matagorda
Sabine R.
Mississippi R.
Corpus Christi
Padre I.
Aransas B.
Lavaca R.
Colorado R.
Matamoras
Monterey
Saltillo
Parras
Chihuahua
Presidio del Norte
Rio Grande del Norte
Puerto R.
Arispe
Guaymas
Villa del Fuerte
Pitic
Gila R.
Santa Fe
Albuquerque
Belen
Socorro
Rio Colorado
Red River
Canadian R.
Cimarron R.
Arkansas R.
Kansas R.
Platte R.
Niobrara R.
White Earth R.
Missouri R.
Yellow Stone R.
Lt. Missouri R.
Cheyenne R.
Red R.
Rocky Mountains
Lewis or Saptin R.
Salmon R.
Clarks or Flathead
Ft. Nez Perces
Ft. Nisqually
Columbia R.
Ft. Vancouver
Oregon City
Ft. Umqua
Astoria
OREGON
WASHINGTON
NEBRASKA TERRITORY
MINESOTA TERRITORY
INDIAN TERRITORY
UTAH
NEW MEXICO
CALIFORNIA
OLD CALIFORNIA
Sacramento City
San Francisco
Monterey
S. Joaquim
L. Tulares
Pt. Conception
Pueblo de los Angelos
San Diego
Walkers L.
Pyramid L.
Mary's L.
Salt L.
Mud L.
Great Salt L.
City of the
South Fork
Rio Colorado
Gulf of California
Gulf of Mexico
Atlantic Ocean
Florida
Key West
Havana
Cuba
Bahama Is.
Yucatan
Tabasco
Campeachy
Vera Cruz
Mexico
Acapulco
Tehuantepec
Guatimala
Panama
Isthmus of Panama
Caracas
Maracaibo
Carthagena
Magdalena R.
Rio Hacha
Santa Martha
Jamaica
Hayti
Porto Rico
Virgin Is.
Caribbee Is.
Trinidad
Orinoco R.
Cumana
Barcelona
Margarita I.
Cape Codera
Cape Blanco
Cape Gracias a Dios
Honduras
Nicaragua
Costa Rica
Veragua
Darien
Gulf of Darien
Gulf of Venice
Gulf of Maracaibo
Gulf of Triste
Gulf of Mexico
Gulf of Florida
Bahama Channel
Old Bahama Channel
Windward Passage
Mona Passage
Anegada Passage
Caribbean Sea
Gulf of Honduras
Gulf of Nicaragua
Gulf of Papagayo
Gulf of Panama
Gulf of Guayaquil
Gulf of Amatique
Gulf of Campeachy
Gulf of Tehuantepec
Gulf of Vera Cruz

THE UNITED STATES.



The "United States of America" is the most interesting and important division of the western hemisphere. Comprising a territory equal in extent to that of half of the kingdoms and principalities of Europe combined, with a population exceeded by but three or perhaps four of the European states, and numbering scarce three fourths of a century since it broke loose from the leading-strings of the mother-country, the American republic stands unparalelled in the history of the rise and growth of nations. The territory of the United States lies between the meridians of 67° and 125° longitude west from Greenwich, and the parallels 24° and 49° of north latitude. It is bounded by the Atlantic ocean on the east, and the Pacific on the west; by the British colonies on the north, and the republic of Mexico and the great gulf of that name on the south. It comprises an area of over 3,000,000 square miles. The frontier line has a length of about 10,000 miles, and about 5,000 miles of sea and lake coast.

Physical Aspect.—A territory of such vast extent must of course comprise a great variety of surface, soil, and climate. A large proportion of it is not only susceptible of cultivation, but has a fertile soil capable of supporting a dense population. There are but few barrens, and no great deserts, except one in the territory of Utah. It is numerously threaded by navigable streams, which not only give fertility to their borders, but are available in bearing the gifts of the soil to domestic and foreign markets, and in bring backing to the inhabitants the products and luxuries of other climes.

Mountains.—The territory of the United States is traversed by several chains of mountains. The Allegany, or Appalachian range, on the Atlantic side, runs in a northeasterly direction, from the northern part of Georgia to the gulf and river of St. Lawrence, stretching along in uniform ridges, at the distance of from 250 to 80 miles from the seacoast, and following its general direction. It occupies in breadth a space of from 60 to 120 miles, and separates the waters which run into the Atlantic ocean, from those which flow into the Mississippi and its tributaries. The highest elevation in this range, and the most prominent in the Atlantic states, is Black Mountain, in the western part of North Carolina; it is 6,476 feet in height. The general elevation is from 2,000 to 3,000 feet above the level of the sea. The Rocky mountains, situated about 800 miles from the Pacific coast, are on a much grander scale than the Alle-

ganies. Their base is about 300 miles in breadth, and their loftiest summits, covered with everlasting snow, rise to the height of from 12,000 to 18,000 feet above the level of the sea. These vast chains may be considered as a continuation of the Cordilleras in Mexico. The Sierra Nevada is a range of mountains extending through California, and from these branch off to the northwest the Cascade range, which traverses Oregon into the British territories. Both these ranges become more elevated as they extend farther north, where some of their peaks enter the regions of perpetual snow. Still farther west is another chain called the Coast range, running almost parallel to, and at a short distance from, the Pacific coast.

Bays.—The principal bays and sounds on the Atlantic border are—Passamaquoddy bay, which lies between the state of Maine and the British province of New Brunswick; Massachusetts bay, between Capes Ann and Cod; Long Island sound, between Long Island and the coast of Connecticut; Delaware bay, which sets up between Cape May and Cape Henlopen, separating the states of New Jersey and Delaware; Chesapeake bay, which communicates with the ocean between Cape Charles and Cape Henry, extending in a northern direction for 200 miles, through the states of Virginia and Maryland; Albemarle sound and Pamlico sound, on the coast of North Carolina. There are no large bays or sounds on the coast of the gulf of Mexico. On the Pacific coast, however, there are several excellent bays, but the principal and only one necessary to mention is the bay of San Francisco, in the newly-acquired territory of California.

Lakes.—The great lakes of North America have been described on a previous page. Lakes Michigan and Champlain are the only two lying wholly within the United States. Lakes Superior, Huron, Erie, and Ontario, have the boundary between the United States and the British provinces, running directly through their centre. The other lakes of any magnitude in the United States are Lakes George, Oneida, Otsego, Skaneateles, Owasco, Cayuga, Seneca, Crooked, Canandaigua, Honedoye, Chautauque, and Canesis, all in New York; Moosehead, Chesuncook, Pemadumcook, Moosetogmaguntic, Sebago, and Schoodic, in Maine; Winnipiseogee, in New Hampshire; and Memphremagog, between Canada and Vermont. There are numerous others which it is impossible to mention. In Louisiana, are the great lakes of Pontchartrain, Borgne, Ouacha, Grand, and others formed by the waters of the Mississippi; Bodeau, Cadoe, Bistinoe, Caunisnia, Bayou-Pierre, Spanish, Black, and others formed by the Red river and its branches. In Wisconsin, is Lake Winnebago, formed by Fox river. There are several extensive lakes also in Florida. In California are the Tule lakes, and the Pyramid lake, in the centre of which stands a natural granite pyramid. There is also the Great Salt lake in the territory of Utah.

Rivers.—The rivers of the United States are numerous, and some of them among the most important, and affording facilities for inland navigation and trade unparallelled in any section of the globe. They may be divided into four great classes: 1st. The streams which rise on the east side of the Allegany mountains, and flow into the Atlantic ocean; 2d. Those south of the Allegany range, which discharge themselves into the gulf of Mexico; 3d. The Mississippi and its wide tributaries, which drain the waters of the vast valley included between the Rocky and Allegany ranges; and 4th. The rivers which, rising on the western declivity of the Rocky mountains, direct their course to the Pacific ocean. The Mississippi is the largest river in the United States, and one of the noblest in the world. Its course, in conjunction with its great auxiliary, the Missouri, is about 4,200 miles. The Mississippi rises west of Lake Superior, in latitude 47° 47′ north, amid lakes and swamps, in a dreary and desolate region, and after a course southeast for about 500 miles, reaches the falls of the St. Anthony. Thence it flows a southeasterly and then a southerly direc-

tion, and discharges its waters into the gulf of Mexico. The principal tributaries of the Mississippi from the east are the Wisconsin, the Illinois, and the Ohio, which is itself formed by the junction of the Allegany and Monongahela, at Pittsburgh. The chief tributaries of the Ohio are the Wabash, the Cumberland, and the Tennessee. The principal tributaries of the Mississippi from the west are the St. Peter's, the Des Moines, the Missouri, the Arkansas, and the Red rivers. The Missouri enters the Mississippi river about eighteen miles above St. Louis, after a course of 3,217 miles. Although it loses its name at its confluence with the latter, it is much the longer stream of the two ; but the Mississippi, having been first discovered and explored, has retained its name to the gulf of Mexico. The Missouri is formed of numerous branches, which rise among the Rocky mountains, between the parallels of 42° and 48° north latitude, the principal of which are the Yellow Stone, the Nebraska or Platte, and the Kansas. The most remote are the Jefferson, Madison, and Gallatin rivers. The only obstruction that occurs to its navigation is at the Great Falls, a distance of 2,000 miles from the Mississippi. The principal rivers east of the Alleganies, are the Penobscot, Connecticut, Hudson, Delaware, Susquehannah, Potomac, James, and Savannah. The principal rivers which rise south of the Alleganies, and fall into the gulf of Mexico, are the Appalachicola, which is formed by the junction of the Chatahoochee and Flint rivers ; the Mobile, which is formed of the Alabama and Tombigbee, which unite near latitude 31°, after a separate course of several hundred miles, and the Colorado, Brazos, and Rio Grande del Norte, in Texas. The latter stream, and the Gila, which empties into the gulf of California, form the line between the United States and Mexico. The rivers flowing from the Rocky mountains to the Pacific are, the Columbia, in Oregon, which rises near latitude 55° north, and falls into the Pacific ocean, after a course of 1,500. Its principal tributaries are Clarke, Lewis, Colville, and Willamette rivers. The Colorado, in California, after a course of 1,000 miles, empties into the gulf of California. The other rivers in California are the Sacramento and San Joaquin, which empty into the bay of San Francisco, and the Buenaventura, which empties into the bay of Monterey.

Climate.—The United States, though lying within the temperate zone, embrace almost every variety of climate. In the northern parts, the winters are long and severe ; snow often falls to the depth of three or four feet, and the cold is so piercing as to oblige the inhabitants to make very diligent provision against it. Spring returns here in April, and the heat is great in summer. In the southern parts of the country snow is seldom seen, ice is rarely formed in the rivers, and those fruits which shrink from a northern climate, and flourish only in warm regions, are scattered over the soil. In Georgia, the inhabitants may load their tables with oranges, lemons, and other exquisite fruits that grow in their gardens and groves, while in parts of Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont, even peaches will not flourish. Between these extremities, as in Virginia, Kentucky, Missouri, Illinois, and California, there is a region adapted to the wine-grape, which thrives best in places removed from both the torrid and frigid zones.

Minerals.—Minerals abound in the United States in great variety and profusion. It has all the useful, as well as all the precious metals. Iron is very generally diffused, and is very abundant. Coal, both bituminous and anthracite, is found in great quantities. Rich copper mines exist in the northwestern states, and lead mines in Missouri and Illinois. The gold mines of California seem inexhaustible ; quicksilver mines have also been profitably worked there. Granite, marble, and other building stones, are found in every section of the country. Salt springs abound in many parts of the Union, and large quantities are manufactured in New York, Western Pennsylvania, Western Virginia, Ohio, and Illinois ; it is also made from sea-water in some parts of New England.

Railroads, &c.—About fourteen thousand miles of railroad are in successful operation in the various sections of the United States. They are nearly equal, in the aggregate, to the railroads of all the rest of the world; and if extended in one line would reach more than halfway round the globe. There are about 5,000 miles of canals in the United States, forming valuable artificial means of navigation for transporting the heavy products of the country; but since the rapid increase of railroad communication few canals have been commenced. It is within ten years that the first line of telegraph was erected in the United States, and there are now more than 15,000 miles in operation, connecting the most important points of the country with each other, for the instantaneous transmission of intelligence.

Commerce.—In the extent and prosperity of its commerce the United States is second only to Great Britain. There is no part of the globe to which American merchantmen do not find their way; and the coasting and inland trade are carried on to an equal extent. The foreign exports are confined principally to agricultural products, with naval stores, timber, and other productions of the forest. The exports and imports are each over $200,000,000 annually. The imports are European manufactures, principally of the finer descriptions, and the productions of the tropics, such as sugar, coffee, spices, wines, &c. There are about 10,000 vessels, of an aggregate tonnage of 5,000,000, employed in foreign commerce.

Fisheries.—The fisheries of the United States are extensive and valuable. About 250 vessels and about 12,000 seamen and landsmen are employed in the whale-fishery. The products of this fishery amount to from 400,000 to 500,000 barrels of oil annually. The cod-fishery is pursued off the coasts of New England, and as far north as Labrador, and about 100,000 tons of shipping are thus employed. The mackerel fishery employs about 60,000 tons of shipping.

Agricultural Products.—The agricultural products of the United States, according to the census statistics for 1850, were—wheat, 104,799,230 bushels; Indian corn, 591,586,053 bushels; tobacco, 199,532,494 pounds; cotton, 2,474,-214 bales of 400 pounds; wine, 141,295 gallons; hay, 13,605,384 tons; hemp, dew-rotted, 62,182 tons, water-rotted, 13,059 tons; flaxseed, 567,749 bushels; maple-sugar, 32,759,263 pounds; cane-sugar, 318,644,000 pounds; wool, 52,-422,797 pounds; butter, 312,202,286 pounds; cheese, 103,184,585 pounds

Manufactures.—The manufactures of the United States are various, comprising almost every article known to commerce. From the great variety of soil and climate, producing in abundance every species of raw material, the cheap and inexhaustible supply of moving power furnished by innumerable running streams, combined with the improvements which are every day taking place in machinery, the United States is destined eventually to distance all other countries in its progress in this branch of industry. The entire capital invested in manufactures in the United States on the first day of June, 1850, was $530,000,000; amount paid for labor, year ending as above, $240,000,000; value of manufactured articles, $1,020,300,000; persons employed, 1,050,000.

Public Lands.—The public lands form a very important feature of the national wealth. The property of the soil within the limits of the United States, not owned by the several states, or by individuals, is vested in the general government. They are principally located in the western and southwestern states and territories, and in California and Oregon. They amount, in the aggregate, to several hundred millions of acres, to which the Indian title has been extinguished.

Education.—There is great attention paid to education in most of the states. Common and primary schools are widely distributed, and high schools are numerous. The common schools are supported either by a fund accumulated from various sources, or by taxation; and in the new states and territories

640 acres of the public lands in every township is specially reserved for purposes of education. There are in the United States 130 colleges and universities, sixty theological seminaries, twelve law schools, and fifty medical schools.

Religion.—There is no established or national church in the United States, religion being left to the voluntary choice of the people. No special privileges or immunities are granted to one denomination beyond another, it being an essential principle in the national and state governments, that legislation may of right interfere in the concerns of public worship, only so far as to protect every individual in the exercise, without molestation, of that of his choice. Nor is any legislative enactment made for the support of religion, except that, in Massachusetts the legislature is enjoined to require, and in New Hampshire is empowered to authorize, the several towns and parishes to make adequate provision, at their own expense, for the support of protestant ministers. In the latter state also, a Roman catholic is disqualified, by the constitution, from holding any state office. But in all the other states religion is left entirely to the voluntary support of its professors.

Population.—The first census was taken in 1790, since which period there have been six decennial enumerations. Their results are as follows:—

Census Year.	White Persons.	Colored Persons. Free.	Slave.	Total Population.	Ratio of Increase per. cent.
1790	3,172,464	59 466	697,897	3,929,827	
1800	4,304,489	108,395	893,041	5,305,925	35.01
1810	5,862,004	186,446	1,191,364	7,239,814	36.45
1820	7,872,711	238,197	1,543,688	9,654,596	33.12
1830	10.537,178	319,599	2,009,043	12,866,020	33.48
1840	14.189,705	386,295	2,487,355	17,063,355	32 .67
1850	19,467,537	426,762	3,204,089	23,263,488	36 25

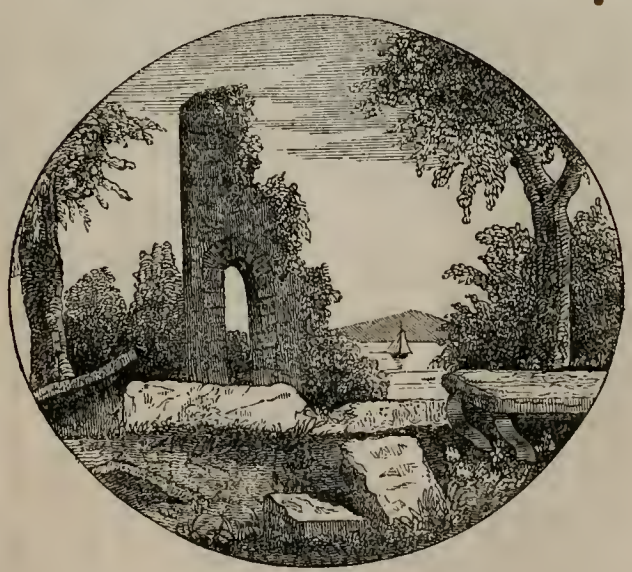
The following table contains some of the more important details of the census of 1850, classified by states and territories:—

STATES.	Dwellings.	Families.	White Males.	White Females.	Colored Males.	Colored Females.	Total Free Population.	Slaves.	Deaths in 1850.	Farms in Cultivation.	Manufacturing Establishments.*	Rep. in Cong.†
Alabama	73,070	73,786	219,728	106,779	1,047	1,225	428,779	342,892	9,084	41,964	1,622	7
Arkansas	28,252	28,416	85,699	76.369	313	271	162,657	46,932	2,987	17.758	271	2
California		No returns.			Estim	ated at	165,000					2
Connecticut	61.013	78,448	180,001	183,304	3,749	3,737	370,791		5,781	22,445	3,913	4
Delaware	15,290	15,439	35,771	35,518	8,989	8,963	89,246	2,289	1,209	6,063	513	1
Florida	9,022	9,107	25.674	21,493	420	505	48,092	39,309	933	4.304	121	1
Georgia	91,011	91,471	266,096	255,342	1,368	1,512	524,318	381,681	9,920	51.759	1,407	8
Illinois	146,544	149,153	445,644	400,460	2,756	2,610	851.470		11.619	76,208	3,099	9
Indiana	170,178	171,564	506.408	471,220	5,472	5,316	988,416		12,728	93,896	4,326	11
Iowa	32.962	33,517	100,885	90,994	168	167	192,214		2,044	14.805	482	2
Kentucky	130,769	132,920	392,840	368,848	4,771	4,965	771,424	210,981	15,206	74.777	3,471	10
Louisiana	49,101	54,112	141,059	114,357	7,593	9,939	272,953	244,786	11,948	13,422	1,021	4
Maine	95,797	103,787	296,788	285,404	705	620	583,188		7,545	46,760	3,682	6
Maryland	81,708	87,384	211.495	207,095	34,914	39,163	492,667	90,368	9,594	21,860	3,863	6
Massachusetts	152,835	192,679	484,284	501.420	4,314	4,481	994,499		19,414	34,235	9,637	11
Michigan	71,616	72,611	208,471	186,626	1,412	1,145	397,654		4,520	34.089	1,979	4
Mississippi	51,681	52,107	156,260	139,498	473	426	296,657	309,898	8,711	33,960	866	5
Missouri	96,349	100,899	312,986	279,091	1,338	1,206	594,621	87,422	12,211	54,458	3,030	7
New Hampshire	57,339	62,287	155,954	161,535	213	232	317,964		4,268	29,229	3,301	3
New Jersey	81,064	89,080	233,746	232.49:	11.542	11,551	489.333	222	4,339	23.905	4.374	5
New York	473,936	566,869	1,515,052	1,504,105	22,978	24,959	3,097,394		41,339	170.621	23.823	33
North Carolina	105,542	106,023	272,789	280,506	13,226	13,970	580,491	288,412	10,207	56.916	2,523	8
Ohio	336,098	348,523	1,004.111	951,997	12,239	12,061	1,980,408		23,949	143.887	10,550	21
Pennsylvania	386,216	408,497	1,142,863	1,115,600	25.057	28,266	2,311.786		28,318	127.577	22.036	25
Rhode Island	22,379	28,216	70.417	73,593	1,660	1,884	147.544		2,241	5,385	1,144	2
South Carolina	52,642	52,937	137,773	136,850	4.110	4,790	283,523	384,984	7,997	29,969	1,473	6
Tennessee	129.420	130.605	382,276	374,623	3,072	3,199	763,161	239,461	11,759	72,710	2,789	10
Texas	27,988	28,377	84,863	69,237	171	160	154.431	58,161	3,046	12,193	307	2
Vermont	56,642	59,753	159,678	153,732	367	343	314,120		3,132	29,885	1,839	3
Virginia	165,815	167.530	451,552	443,752	25,813	27,986	949,133	472,528	19,053	77.013	4,433	13
Wisconsin	56,316	57,608	164,221	140,344	365	261	305,191		2,884	20,177	1,273	3
Ter. Minnesota	1,002	1,016	3,695	2,343	21	18	6,077		30	157	5	
Ter N. Mexico	13,453	13,502	31,730	29.800	14	3	61.547		1,157	3,750	20	
Ter. Oregon	2,374	2,374	8,142	4,945	119	87	13,293		47	1,164	51	
Ter. Utah	2,322	2,322	6,022	5,308	12	12	11,354	26	239	926	16	
Dist. Columbia	7,917	8.292	18,548	19,479	4,210	5,763	48.000	3,687	846	264	427	
Totals	3,339,163	3.575,602	9,943,415	9,524,122	204,961	221,801	20,059,399	3,204,089	318,305	1,448,495	123,687	234

* Producing each $500 and upward per annum. † Number of representatives in Congress under the census of 1850.

Government.—The government of the United States is a confederated republic, each state being independent, and having the exclusive control of all concerns merely local, with its own executive, legislature, judiciary, &c. But the regulation of commerce, the defence of the country, and all the general concerns of the confederacy, are committed, by the constitution, to a general government. The legislative power is vested in a Congress, consisting of a senate and house of representatives. The senate is composed of two members from each state, chosen for a period of six years, and so arranged, that one third of the senate is renewed biennially. The members of the house of representatives are chosen every two years. Their number is proportioned to the number of inhabitants, two fifths of the slaves being omitted in the enumeration. The house of representatives represents the people; the senate represents the states. The executive power is vested in a president, who, together with the vice-president, is chosen for four years, by electors from all the states. The principal subordinate officers of the executive department are the secretaries of state, of the treasury, of the interior, of war, and of the navy, the postmaster-general, and the attorney-general. The president must be a native-born citizen, and 35 years of age. The judiciary is composed of a supreme court, of one chief and eight associate judges, of forty-six district courts, held respectively by a district judge alone, and of nine circuit courts, composed of the judge of the district and one of the judges of the supreme court. There are besides territorial courts, which are temporary, and lose that character when the territory becomes a state. The present constitution of the United States was adopted in 1789, and has since been amended. It secures to the people the grand principles of freedom, liberty of conscience in matters of religion, liberty of the press, trial by jury, and the right of choosing and being chosen to office.

Colonial History.—The original thirteen states, it is well known, were formerly colonies of Great Britain. The English made the first settlement at Jamestown, in Virginia, in 1607; New York was settled by the Dutch in 1614, and afterward ceded to the English; and at Plymouth, in Massachusetts, in 1620, the first settlement was made by the English in New England. The remaining colonies were principally offshoots from these parent-stems. The dates of their settlement are as follows: New Hampshire in 1623; New Jersey in 1623; Maryland and Delaware in 1627; Connecticut in 1633; Rhode Island in 1636; Pennsylvania in 1640; North Carolina in 1665; South Carolina in 1670; and Georgia in 1732. Among the earliest settlers in North America were many who emigrated from Great Britain on account of civil or religious persecution; men who, being of republican principles, naturally instilled those principles into the minds of their children, and thus laid the foundation of that spirit of resistance to arbitrary acts of power, which kindled the flames of war between the mother-country and the colonies, and ended in the establishment of a powerful republic. In 1765, a stamp duty on various articles was imposed by the British parliament on the colonies; but on their remonstrating, this was soon after repealed.



Ruins of Jamestown, Va.

But it was subsequently followed by several oppressive acts, against which the colonists remonstrated and petitioned in vain. At length, despairing of redress a general congress of delegates was called to consult upon the public good. The Congress assembled at Philadelphia September 4, 1774, and various measures were adopted to obtain justice from the British government. But their petitions were answered by new aggressions, and their remonstrances were replied to by sending arms to intimidate them, and to coerce them into submission to arbitrary power. The alternative presented was, WAR or SLAVERY. The colonists chose the former, and made vigorous preparations for the coming storm. The Americans having collected some warlike stores at Concord, Mass., General Gage, on the 19th of April, 1775, sent a detachment of troops to destroy them. On their way they met at Lexington some militia men armed, and Major Pitcairn, the British commanding officer, ordered them to lay down their weapons. They refused, and were fired upon by the soldiery, and several were killed. There was also a conflict at Concord, and many were killed on both sides before the day was ended. This was the first martyr-blood of the Revolution that flowed. The church-bells rang throughout the neighboring region, and the people seized arms and flocked to Boston by hundreds. On the 17th of June following, the battle of Bunker's Hill occurred between 1,500 Americans and about 3,000 British regulars. The enemy was three times repulsed, but at length the Americans were compelled to retreat across Charlestown Neck. Among the Americans slain was the brave General Warren. The loss of the Americans was 450; that of the British upward of 1,000. About the time of the battle of Bunker's Hill Washington was appointed commander-in-chief, and Congress adopted the army collected at Boston, under the name of the "continental army." He took the command about the first of July, and proceeded to invest Boston. In March following, the British under General Howe evacuated the town, and New England became freed from foreign soldiery. The battles at Lexington and Bunker's Hill had aroused the minds of the colonists to a more determined resistance: and when, in the spring of 1776, intelligence was received of the intention of the king to subdue them at all hazards, public opinion soon became decidedly in favor of union and independence. A resolution was adopted by Congress, on the 9th of June, that "the united colonies are, and ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown; and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved." This bold proposition was soon after followed by the appointment of a committee to draft a declaration of independence. This committee consisted of Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Robert R. Livingston. The draft was made by Jefferson, and after a few verbal alterations by Dr. Franklin and Mr. Adams, it was submitted to Congress on the 28th of June. It was laid upon the table until the 1st of July, when it was taken up in committee of the whole, and after several amendments were made, nine states voted for independence. The assemblies of Maryland and Pennsylvania refused their concurrence; but conventions of the people having been called, majorities were obtained, and on the 4th of July, votes from all the colonies were procured in its favor, and the thirteen united colonies were declared free and independent states. The contest thus auspiciously commenced was continued with varied success—victory sometimes perching upon the banner of the patriots, and sometimes rout and disaster—till the defeat and surrender of Cornwallis, with his whole army, at Yorktown, October 19, 1781, proved the death-blow to British power in the United States, and a cessation of hostilities was soon after proclaimed. A preliminary treaty of peace between the United States and Great Britain was signed on the 20th of January, 1783, and on the 3d of September following, a definitive treaty was signed, and speedily

THE BATTLE OF LEXINGTON, April 19, 1775.

THE BATTLE OF BUNKER-HILL, June 17, 1775.

ratified, and the United States declared to be "a free and independent nation." The following table contains a record of the principal engagements during the Revolution :—

Battles.	Dates.	American Commanders.	American Forces.	Killed and Wounded.	British Commanders.	British Forces.	Killed and Wounded.
Lexington, Concord	April 19, 1775	Parker, Barrett		108	Pitcairn, Smith	1,700	273
Bunker's Hill	June 17, 1775	Prescott	1,500	450	Howe	3,000	1,054
Fort Moultrie	June 28, 1776	Moultrie	600	32	Parker	10 vessels 270 guns.	200
Long Island	Aug. 27, 1776	Washington	15,000	500*a*	Howe	24,000	450
White Plains	Oct. 28, 1776	Washington	18,000	300	Howe	35,000	300
Fort Washington	Nov. 16, 1776	Morgan	2,967	149*b*	Howe		800
Trenton	Dec. 26, 1776	Washington	3,000	9	Rahl	2,000	20*c*
Princeton	Jan. 3, 1777	Washington	4,000	100	Mawhood	2,000	100*d*
Bennington	Aug. 16, 1777	Stark	1,600	100	Baum	1,100	280*e*
Brandywine	Sept. 11, 1777	Washington	11,000	900*f*	Howe	18,000	576
Stillwater (1st)	Sept. 19, 1777	Gates	5,000	319	Burgoyne	7,000	500
Germantown	Oct. 4, 1777	Washington	11,000	800*g*	Howe	20,000	600
Stillwater (2d)*h*	Oct. 7, 1777	Gates	10,722	80	Burgoyne	6,000	400
Red Bank	Oct. 22, 1777	Greene	400	32	Donop	2,000	400
Monmouth	June 28, 1778	Washington	11,000	302	Clinton	19,000	349
Quaker Hill, R. I.	Aug. 29, 1778	Sullivan		211	Pigott		260
Savannah	Dec. 29, 1778	Howe	700	100*i*	Campbell	2,000	26
Brier Creek	Mar. 3, 1779	Ash	1,560	150*k*	Prevost	900	16
Stony Point	July 15, 1779	Wayne		98	Johnson	606	63*l*
Savannah	Oct. 9, 1779	D'Estaing	4,450	878	Prevost		120
Charleston	May 12, 1780	Lincoln	5,000	254*m*	Clinton	8,000	268
The Waxhaws	May 29, 1780	Buford	400	316	Tarleton		17
Camden	Aug. 16, 1780	Gates	3,663	720	Cornwallis	2,100	375
King's Mountain	Oct. 6, 1780	Campbell	1,600	100	Ferguson	1,600	334*n*
Cowpens	Jan. 17, 1781	Morgan	800	72	Tarleton	1,100	368*o*
Guilford	Mar. 15, 1781	Greene	4,400	400	Cornwallis	2,400	600
Ninety-Six	May 22, 1781	Greene		150	Cruger	500	
Eutaw Springs	Sept. 8, 1781	Greene	2,000	555	Stewart	2,300	500*p*
Yorktown	Oct. 19, 1781	Washington	16,000	300	Cornwallis	8,000	552*q*

a 1,097 taken prisoners. *b* 2,816 taken prisoners. *c* 909 taken prisoners.
d 300 taken prisoners. *e* 654 taken prisoners. *f* 400 taken prisoners. *g* 400 taken prisoners.
h This second battle of Stillwater led to the surrender of Burgoyne, and his entire army, at Saratoga, ten days afterward.
i 453 taken prisoners. *k* 230 taken prisoners.
l 543 taken prisoners. *m* 5,000 taken prisoners. *n* 648 taken prisoners.
o 500 taken prisoners. *p* 538 taken prisoners. *q* 7,247 taken prisoners.

FAC-SIMILE OF CONTINENTAL MONEY.

1 George Wythe
2 Wm. Whipple
3 Josiah Bartlett
4 Thomas Lynch Jr.
5 Benj. Harnson
6 Richard Henry Lee
7 Saml. Adams
8 George Clinton
9 Wm. Paca
10 Samuel Chase
11 Richd. Stockton
12 Lewis Morris
13 Wm. Floyd
14 Arthur Middleton
15 Thos. Hayward Jr.
16 Charles Caroll, of Carollton
17 Robt. Morris
18 Step Hopkins
19 Benjamin Rush
20 Elbridge Gerry
21 Robt. Treat Paine
22 Wm. Hooper
23 Thomas Willing
24 William Ellery
25 Geo. Clymer
26 Joseph Hewes
27 Geo. Walton
28 James Wilson
29 Abra. Clark
30 Fras. Hopkinson
31 John Adams
32 Roger Sherman
33 Robt. R. Livingston
34 Th. Jefferson
35 Benj. Franklin
36 Thos. Nelson Jr.
37 Francis Lewis
38 Jno. Witherspoon
39 Sam. Huntington
40 Wm. Williams
41 Oliver Wolcott
42 Charles Thompson
43 John Hancock
44 Geo. Read
45 John Dickinson
46 Edward Rutledge
47 Thomas M'Kean
48 Phil. Livingston.

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE, JULY 4, 1776.

THE UNANIMOUS DECLARATION OF THE THIRTEEN UNITED STATES OF AMERICA IN CONGRESS ASSEMBLED.—When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume among the powers of the earth the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitled them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness; that, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new government, laying its foundation on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies, and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present king of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these states. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world:—

He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good. He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operation till his assent should be obtained; and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them. He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the legislature—a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only. He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the repository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures. He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly for opposing with manly firmness his invasions on the rights of the people. He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected; whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise—the state remaining, in the meantime, exposed to all the dangers of invasion from without and convulsions within. He has endeavored to prevent the population of these states—for that purpose obstructing the laws of naturalization of foreigners, refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands. He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers. He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure of their offices and the amount and payment of their salaries. He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance. He has kept among us, in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our legislatures. He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power. He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitution and unacknowledged by our laws—giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation. For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us; for protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these states; for cutting off our trade with all parts of the world; for imposing taxes on us without our consent; for depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of trial by jury; for transporting us beyond seas to be tried for pretended offences; for abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies; for taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the *forms* of our governments; for suspending our own legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever. He has abdicated government here by declaring us out of his protection and waging war against us. He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burnt our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people. He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation, and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation. He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands. He has excited domestic insurrections among us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

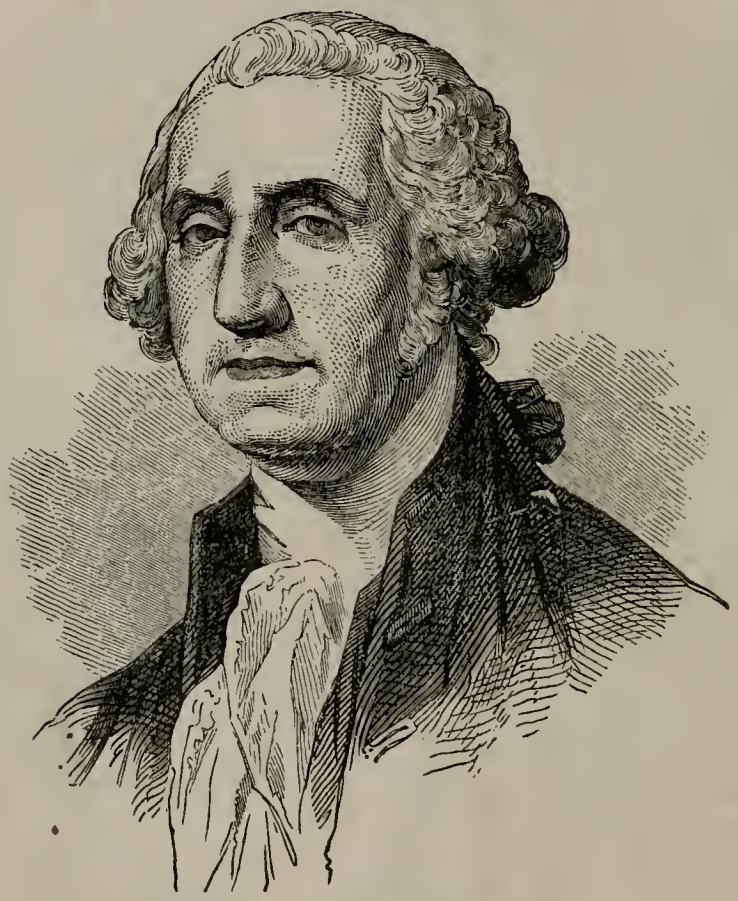
In every stage of these oppressions, we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms. Our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury. A prince, whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts, by their legislature, to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them, by the ties of our common kindred, to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them, as we hold the rest of mankind, enemies in war, in peace, friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America, in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the World for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name, and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that, as free and independent states, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and to do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

(*The names of the Signers are given above; the numbers attached to them designate their portraits in the engraving.*)

Federal History.—The year subsequent to the declaration of independence, the united colonies had entered into a compact for the general good, and adopted articles of confederation as organic law for the whole. But when peace returned, and commerce and the arts began to revive, they were found too defective for sound and efficient government, and accordingly, in May, 1787, delegates from the several states met at Philadelphia, and adopted the present federal constitution on the 17th of September following. The government was organized under it, and George Washington, who had commanded the American army through the trying times of the Revolution, was elected the first president. He was inaugurated in the city of New York, on the 30th of April,



PORTRAIT OF WASHINGTON.

1789. Washington filled the presidential chair eight consecutive years, and within that time established a wise financial and foreign policy for the government—the chief features of which were, an economical expenditure, a judicious tariff for revenue, and strict neutrality in relation to the wars of nations in the eastern hemisphere. Vermont, Kentucky, and Tennessee, were admitted into the Union during Washington's administration. Our neutral policy irritated the French, and they not only committed aggressions upon our commerce, but threatened us with invasion. John Adams succeeded Washington in 1797, and in view of the threats of the French, he raised an army, and increased the navy. Washington was appointed to the command of the former, but he died soon after. Happily for humanity, the services of the army were not needed. Thomas Jefferson succeeded John Adams as president of the United States in 1801. During his administration a treaty was effected with France (then ruled by Napoleon as first-consul) for the cession of Louisiana to the United States, for which our government paid fifteen millions of dollars. The energetic measures of President Jefferson made the commercial and political influence of the

United States seriously felt in Europe. The scar which England received, in her contest with America during the Revolution, still mortified her pride, and the growing commercial importance of the new republic excited her fiercest jealousy. In her impotent wrath, she committed aggression after aggression, until at length they could no longer be borne with honor; and during the fourth year of Mr. Madison's administration (which succeeded Mr. Jefferson's, in 1809), war was formally declared against Great Britain. This war was continued until February, 1815, when peace was restored, a treaty having been agreed to at Ghent, by commissioners appointed by both powers. During Mr. Madison's administration Ohio, Louisiana, and Indiana, were admitted into the Union. The total expenditures of the United States government during the war may be stated in round numbers at $100,000,000, and the loss of lives at about 30,000 persons. The war with England had scarcely closed, when the depredations upon our commerce by the Algerine corsairs rendered it necessary to declare war against that power. A squadron under Commodore Decatur sailed for the Mediterranean in May, 1815, and in a very short time he obtained payment for property destroyed, and treaties highly advantageous to the United States from the dey of Algiers, and the beys of Tunis and Tripoli. James Monroe succeeded Mr. Madison in the presidential chair in 1817. His administration (which lasted eight years) was a quiet one, and no foreign war disturbed the repose of our people. A brief war with the Seminole Indians occurred in 1818; and in 1819 Spain ceded to the United States the whole of East and West Florida, and the adjacent islands. During Mr. Monroe's administration, Mississippi, Illinois, Alabama, Maine, and Missouri, were admitted into the Union. On the admission of the latter state, in 1820, the slavery question first arrayed the North and South as antagonists upon sectional grounds. In 1822, Congress, by an almost unanimous vote, acknowledged the independence of the South American republics. John Quincy Adams succeeded Mr. Monroe in 1825, and his administration was one of almost unbroken peace and prosperity. Andrew Jackson succeeded Mr. Adams as president in 1829. A tariff law, passed in 1828, caused much discontent at the South, and a threatened rebellion, called *Nullification*, was manifested in South Carolina in 1831–'32. During Jackson's administration, the Indian "Black Hawk war," occurred, and a second war with the Seminoles commenced in 1835; and Arkansas and and Michigan came into the Union. Martin Van Buren succeeded Jackson in the presidential chair, in 1837. It was during his administration that the troubles on our Canada frontier took place, when the sympathizing aid which our people lent to the revolted Canadians came very near involving us in hostilities with Great Britain. Van Buren was succeeded by General Harrison in 1841, but death terminated his earthly career just one month after he was inaugurated, and John Tyler, the vice-president, succeeded him. During Mr. Tyler's administration a new tariff was instituted; Texas, an independent republic, and Florida, were annexed to our confederacy. James K. Polk succeeded Mr. Tyler in 1845, and war soon after followed between this government and that of Mexico, in consequence of the annexation of Texas. General Taylor, with a small force, was sent to the Mexican frontier of Texas to oppose a threatened invasion; and two severe battles were fought between the Americans, under Taylor, and the Mexicans at Palo Alto and Resaca de la Palma, on the 8th and 9th of May, 1846. General Scott was also sent to Mexico, and there took the chief command. Taylor captured Matamoras and Monterey, and defeated a Mexican army of four times the number of his own forces, at Buena Vista; while Scott, after securing Vera Cruz, pushing on toward the capital. After several successful battles, he hoisted the American flag over "the halls of the Montezumas." A treaty was finally concluded between our government and that of Mexico, by which California and New Mexico became the property of the United States.

Iowa and Wisconsin were admitted into the Union and the Oregon boundary qnestion settled during Mr. Polk's administration. General Zachary Taylor, was elected the twelfth president in 1848. The discovery of gold in California, and the colonization and founding of a new state on the Pacific coast were the chief events of Taylor's administration. President Taylor died quite suddenly, on the 9th of July, 1850, and was succeeded in office by the vice-president, Millard Fillmore, whose administration has been signalized by the admission of California into the Union, and the passage of the compromise measure.

PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

No.	NAME.	RESIDENCE,	BORN.	Installed into office.	Age at that time.	Years in the office.	DIED.	Age at his death.
1	George Washington	Virginia	Feb. 22, 1732	1789	57	8	Dec. 14, 1799	68
2	John Adams	Massachusetts	Oct. 30, 1735	1797	61	4	July 4, 1826	91
3	Thomas Jefferson	Virginia	April 13, 1743	1801	58	8	July 4, 1826	83
4	James Madison	Virginia	March 16, 1751	1809	58	8	June 28, 1836	85
5	James Monroe	Virginia	April 2, 1759	1817	58	8	July 4, 1831	72
6	John Quincy Adams	Massachusetts	July 11, 1767	1825	58	4	Feb. 23, 1848	80
7	Andrew Jackson	Tennessee	March 15, 1767	1829	62	8	June 8, 1845	78
8	Martin Van Buren	New York	Dec. 5, 1782	1837	54	4		
9	William Henry Harrison	Ohio	Feb. 9, 1773	1841	68	–	April 4, 1841	68
10	John Tyler	Virginia	March 29, 1790	1841	51	4		
11	James Knox Polk	Tennessee	Nov. 2, 1795	1845	49	4	June 15, 1849	54
12	Zachary Taylor	Louisiana	Nov. 24, 1784	1849	64	1	July 9, 1850	66
13	Millard Fillmore	New York	J n. 7, 1800	1850	50	3		
14	Franklin Pierce	New Hampshire	Nov. 23, 1804	1853	48			

Double Eagle, $20

Eagle, $10.

Old Half-Eagle, $5.

Gold Dollar.

¼ Eagle, $2.50.

3 Cents.

½ Dime, 5 Cents.

1 Dime, 10 Cents.

¼ Dollar, 25 Cents.

½ Dollar, 50 Cents.

Half-Dollar, 50 Cents

Dollar, $1.

Dollar, $1.

MAINE.*

Maine, the northeasternmost of the United States, lies between 43° 5′ and 47° 20′ north latitude, and 66° 49′ and 71° 4′ west longitude from Greenwich, and is bounded north by Canada East, from which it is separated by the river St. Johns; east by New Brunswick, from which it is separated in part by the St. Croix; south by the Atlantic; west by New Hampshire, from which it is separated in part by Piscataqua and Salmon Fall rivers; and northwest by Canada East. Superficial area, 32,628 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—On the seaboard the surface is generally level, though not very fertile. For some ten or twenty miles back the soil is sandy, gravelly, clayey, or loamy, seldom very rich, but tolerably fertile in some places, though oftener poor. In the tract lying north of this, extending from fifty to ninety miles from the sea, the same kinds of soil are found, but generally more fertile. The surface rises into large swells of generally good soil, between which, along the margins of the streams, are frequently rich "intervale," or alluvial lands; while in other places sandy or gravelly pine plains occur, or spruce or cedar swamps. In the central parts of the state the surface is more broken; and in many of the river valleys the soil is not exceeded in fertility in any of the other New England states. At the extreme north the country is less hilly, and is but little settled.

Mountains.—On the western side of the state, a little to the eastward of the White mountains, in New Hampshire, an irregular chain of high lands commences and extends northeastwardly, more or less interrupted, to the easterly boundary of the state, terminating at an isolated peak, 1,683 feet in height, called Mars hill. Katahdin mountain, which may be considered as a part of the above-named range, is much the highest land in the state, being 5,335 feet above the level of the sea. Agamentacus, which is of considerable elevation, is in York, near the southwest corner of the state.

Rivers, Lakes, and Bays.—The principal rivers are, the Penobscot, Kennebec, Androscoggin, Saco, Sheepscot, Damariscotta, Machias, Salmon Fall, Piscataqua, St. Croix, and the St. John's. The lakes, or ponds, are rather numerous, the most noted of which are Moosehead, Umbagog, Sebago, Schoodic, Chesuncook, Pemadumcook, and Mooselogmaguntic. The principal bays are Casco, Penobscot, Frenchman's, Englishman's, Machias, and Passamaquoddy.

Islands.—The chief islands are Mount Desert, Deer, Long, Boon, Fox, and Cranberry.

Climate.—Although the climate is subject to great extremes of heat and cold, the air in all parts of the state is salubrious and pure. Near the ocean and bays, the heats of summer are greatly tempered by the breezes; and the rigors of winter, though severe, are more uniform and less trying to health than in many situations farther south. The range of the temperature varies from 100° Fahrenheit to 27° below zero. Snow often lies upon the ground for four to five months in the year.

Cities and Chief Towns.—Augusta is the seat of government. Bangor and Portland are cities. The other populous towns are Bath, Bucksport, Bel-

* So called as early as 1533, from *Maine*, a department of France, of which Henrietta Maria, queen of England was proprietor at the time.

MAINE
Lon. West from Greenwich
Lon. E. from Washington
Scale of Miles
10 30 50
71
70
68
67
6
7
9
10
48
47
46
45
44
43
CANADA EAST
NEW BRUNSWICK
NEW HAMPSHIRE
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Saguenay R.
River St. Lawrence
Boundary according to Treaty of 1783
Quebec
L. of Orleans
New Liverpool
St. Marie
Chaudiere R.
Wallooostook R.
Allagash R.
Aroostook R.
Green R.
St. Johns R.
Eagle L.
Great Falls
Ristigouche R.
Tobique R.
Ft. Fairfield
Mars Hill
St. Johns River
Houlton
Woodstock
FREDERICKTON
Chamberlin L.
Mt. Katahdin 5000 ft.
Chesuncook L.
Penobscot R.
Moose R.
Moosehead L.
Mt. Baker
Millinocket L.
Grand L.
Vanceboro
R. St. Croix
Greenville
The Forks
Kennebec R.
Dead R.
Sebec L.
Piscataquis R.
Moscow
Monson
Dover
Enfield
Schoodic Lakes
Calais
St. Andrews
Mt. Abraham
Bingham
Exeter
Orono
Old Town
Greenbush
WASHINGTON
Dennysville
Passamaquoddy B.
Phillips
Solon
Athens
Palmyra
Bangor
Amherst
Belfast
Machias
Farmington
Weld
Norridgewock
Hamden
Bucksport
Columbia
Franklin
Steuben
Andover
Androscoggin R.
Albion
Frankfort
Ellsworth
Machias B.
Livermore
KENNEBECK
WALDO
Bethel
AUGUSTA
China
Belfast
Paris
Waterford
Hallowell
Gardiner
Lincoln V.
Camden
Danville
Topsham
Wiscasset
Warren
Brunswick
Bath
Gray
Portland
Standish
Waterboro
Saco
YORK
Alfred
Wells
Wells Har.
York
C. Neddock
Portsmouth
Exeter
Haverhill
Newburyport
Salem
Cape Ann
BOSTON
Penobscot Bay
Casco Bay
Kennebec R.
Sheepscot R.
Musconguss B.
Penobscot R.
Mt. Desert I.
Frenchmans B.
Norrowaguscus B.
Eaglehead B.
Machias R.
W. Machias R.
Passamaquoddy B.
Grand Menan I.
Lubec
Eastport
Franklin
Ellsworth
Castine
Penobscot R.
Mattawamkeag R.
Aroostook R.
Tobique R.
Green R.
Ristigouche R.

fast, Brunswick, Camden, Frankfort, Gardiner, Gorham, Hallowell, Minot, Saco, Thomaston, Westbrook, Waldoborough, and York.

Productive Resources.—The principal products of the state are horses, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, wool, butter, cheese, sugar, hay, wheat, rye, barley, oats, potatoes, and Indian corn. Among the other resources are lime, lumber, ice, and fish.

Manufactures.—There are about twenty cotton, and double that number of woollen factories in the state. Ship-building is also extensively carried on.

Railroads and Canals.—The railroads already completed in Maine are of essential value to the interests of the state. They extend about 500 miles, and connect Portland, the commercial capital, with important points in Maine, and with Boston and Montreal. The only canal in this state is the Cumberland and Oxford canal, connecting Portland with Sebago pond, 20 miles, and by a lock in Sago river, navigation is extended to Long pond, 31 miles farther. It cost about $250,000.

Commerce.—The commerce and navigation of this state is mostly confined to coasting and fishing. Its principal exports are lumber, stone, lime, fish, prepared meats, &c. Its commerce with foreign states, in 1850, amounted to about two and a half millions of dollars; and the shipping owned within the state to somewhat over a half a million of tons.

Education.—The common schools in Maine are supported by the districts in which they are located. They number over 5,000. The principal collegiate institutions are Bowdoin college, at Brunswick, to which is attached a medical school, and Waterville college, at Waterville. There are theological seminaries at Bangor, and Redfield, and upward of 100 academies in various parts of the state.

Population.—In 1790, 96,540; in 1800, 151,719; in 1810, 228,705; in 1820, 298,335; in 1830, 399,955; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows:—

Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.
Aroostook	12,535	9,413	Lincoln	74,875	63,512	Waldo	47,230	41,535
Cumberland	79,549	68,660	Oxford	39,763	38,339	Washington	38,810	28,309
Franklin	20,027	20,800	Penobscot	63,089	45,705	York	60,101	54,023
Hancock	34,372	28,646	Piscataquis	14,735	13,138			
Kennebec	62,521	55,804	Somerset	35,581	33,912	Total	583 188	501,796

Government is vested in a governor, senate, and house of representatives, who are elected annually on the 2d Monday in September. The senate can not be less than 20, nor exceed 31 members; the house of representatives can not be less than 100, nor exceed 200 members. Seven councillors are elected by the legislature, to advise the governor in his executive duties. The judicial power is vested in a supreme judicial court, and such other courts as the legislature may establish. Judges are appointed by the governor, and hold their offices during good behavior, or until seventy years of age. The right of suffrage is vested in every male citizen, 21 years of age (excepting paupers, persons under guardianship, and Indians not taxed), who shall have resided three months in the state next preceding an election.

History.—This state embraces a part of New France, as named by Verrazanni, in 1524; or a portion of Acadia, as granted to De Monts in 1603; or a part of North Virginia, or the Plymouth Company, as claimed by the English in 1606; or, more recently, a part of the territory of the "Council of Plymouth," chartered in 1620. In 1622 a grant was made to Ferdinand Gorges and John Mason, of all the country between Merrimac and Kennebec rivers, extending interior to the lakes and rivers of New France, or Canadas, which they called "Laconia." In 1629, that portion of this tract lying between the Merrimac and Piscataqua, extending sixty miles from the sea, was conveyed to Mason alone, and then first received the name of "New Hampshire." In 1639, Gorges obtained a royal charter, constituting him lord proprietor of the province; but, from his stately scheme of government, the people became dissatisfied, and

sought protection of Massachusetts, who took them under her jurisdiction in 1652, and called it the county of Yorkshire. In 1677 she purchased the claims of the heirs of Gorges, as to both jurisdiction and soil. In 1686 Sir Edmund Andros was appointed royal governor over all New England. Plymouth, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island, immediately submitted to his jurisdiction. A few months after Connecticut was added, and in 1688 his power was further extended over New York and New Jersey. In 1691, Plymouth, Massachusetts, Maine, and Acadia, or Nova Scotia, were formed into one royal colony, under Governor Phipps, upon which Plymouth lost her separate government, contrary to her wishes; while New Hampshire, then under the protection of Massachusetts, was forcibly severed from her. Massachusetts obtained a confirmation of her charter, and, through long disputes with the Indians and the French, those additions to her territory were maintained under her jurisdiction until she became an independent state. The first settlement made in Maine was by the "Sagadahock colony," which consisted of one hundred planters, under the command of George Popham. They landed at the mouth of the Kennebec, in 1607 (thirteen years before the settlement of Plymouth), at the place now called Hill's Point, Phippsburg, and erected a few cabins, a storehouse, and some slight fortifications, naming their plantation "St. George." Seventy-five of the number were left to pass the winter, who lost their storehouse by fire, and their president by death: and the year following they abandoned the enterprise, and returned to England. The first permanent settlement was in Bristol, as early as 1625. Maine, from its first corporation, was a district of Plymouth, or Massachusetts, and was usually called the "province or district of Maine." Although it had long been sufficiently populous to become a state, and efforts had been made for that purpose, in 1785–'86, and in 1802, it was not admitted into the Union before 1820, when it became a sovereign state. The motto of its seal is *Dirigo*, "*I* direct," having reference to the north star on the crest of the coat-of-arms, which is a directing point to the mariner: it also implies that this state was the northernmost member of the confederation at the time of its admission.

GOVERNORS.	Jonathan H. Hunter..1830	John K. Fairfield.....1840	John Hubbard ..1850
William King.....1820	Samuel E. Smith.....1831	Edward Kavanagh...1843	Wm. G. Crosby.1853
Albion K. Parris....1821	Robert P. Dunlap....1834	Hugh J. Anderson....1844	
Enoch Lincoln.....1826	Edward Kent.. 1838	John W. Dana. 1847	

NEW HAMPSHIRE.*

New Hampshire lies between 42° 41′ and 45° 11′ north latitude, and 70° 40′ and 72° 28′ west longitude from Greenwich, and is bounded north by Canada East, east by Maine, from which it is separated in part by Salmon Fall river; southeast by the Atlantic; south by Massachusetts; and west by Connecticut river, which separates it from Vermont. Superficial area, 9,411 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—Taking into consideration the small extent of surface in this state, it is more varied in its natural features than any other in the Union. Commencing at the seashore, we find a sandy beach, bordered by extensive salt marshes, which are

* This state received its name from John Mason, to whom, in 1629, a portion of its territory was granted after Hampshire, in England, the county from which he emigrated.

NEW HAMPSHIRE
Scale of miles
10 20 30 40
Lon. W. from 72 Greenwich
71
45
44
43
5
6
Lon. East from Washington
Connecticut L.
Magalloway R.
L. Memphremagog
Stewartstown
Colebrook
Connecticut R.
Umbagog Lake
Errol
Columbia
Stratford
Upper Ammonoosuc R.
Northumberland
Guildhall
Lancaster
Berlin
Danville
Dalton
Shelburne
Androscoggin R.
Bethel
Littleton
Whitefield
Mt. Washington 6234 ft.
Bethlehem
Bath
Ammonoosuc R.
Franconia
Haystack Mt.
WHITE MOUNTAINS
Landaff
Lincoln
Bartlett
Haverhill
Black Mt.
Saco R.
Benton
Conway
Fryeburg
Chelsea
Warren
Woodstock
Orford
Thornton
Eaton
Pemigewasset R.
Wentworth
Sandwich
Lyme
Romney
CARROLL
Ossipee
Ossipee R.
Saco River
Ossipee Lake
Plymouth
Hanover
Orange
Winnipiseogee Lake 22 m. l.
Meredith
Lebanon
Grafton
Bristol
Plainfield
Gilford
Alfred
Windsor
Springfield
Hill
Sandbornton
New Durham
Cornish
Croydon
Andover
Gilmanton
Alton
Sunapee L.
Salisbury
Canterbury
Wells
Claremont
Newport
Sutton
Boscawen
Rochester
Great Falls
MERRIMACK
Unity
Pittsfield
Somersworth
Warner
Epsom
Charlestown
CONCORD
Dover
York
Bellows Falls
Hopkinton
Allens
Deerfield
Contoocook R.
Hillsboro
Alstead
Hooksett
Nottingham
Walpole
Weare
Deering
Raymond
New Market
Portsmouth
Stoddard
Antrim
Goffstown
Manchester
Exeter
Rye
Amoskeag Falls
Isles of Shoals
Keene
Chester
Hampton
CHESHIRE
HILLSBOROUGH
ROCKINGHAM
Chesterfield
Amherst
Derry
Newton
Bratleboro
Swanzey
Jaffrey
Peterborough
Newburyport
Salem
Nashua
Fitzwilliam
Winchester
New Ipswich
Mason
Hollis
Hudson
Haverhill
Andover
Ipswich
MASSACHUSETTS
Lowell

intersected by numerous creeks. In the midst of this beech there is a bold promontory, called the "Boar's Head." For the first twenty or thirty miles from the sea the country is either level, or variegated by rolling swells, fertile valleys, and small conical hills. The remainder of the state is greatly diversified by sloping woodlands, rich intervales, rugged mountains, fruitful valleys, foaming cascades, crystal rivers, and silvery lakes, which, from their wild and picturesque effect, have distinguished this country the "Switzerland of America." The soil is as varied in its character as the surface; a considerable portion is fertile, and it is generally better adapted to grazing than tillage. The "intervale lands," on the borders of the large rivers, are esteemed as the most valuable, particularly if they are enriched by annual floods. The uplands, of an uneven surface, and of a warm, moist, stony soil, are regarded as the best for grazing. The sandy pine plains are the poorest, and often are of little or no use, except for growing wood.

Mountains.—The most considerable of these are the White mountains, the Monadnock, Moosehillock, Ossipee, Sunipee, Patuckoway, and Kearsarge.

Rivers, Lakes, and Bays.—The principal rivers are the Connecticut, Merrimac, Androscoggin, Salmon Fall, Piscataqua, Exeter, or Swamscot, Saco, Upper and Lower Ammonoosuc, Sugar, Ashuelet, Winnipisiogee, Contoocook, Lamprey, Nashua, Margallaway, and Piscataquog. The chief lakes are the Winnipisiogee, Umbagog, Ossipee, Massabesick, Sunipee, Newfound, and Squam. There are two "Great bays" in this state; the largest situated at the confluence of Swamscot, Winnicut, and Lamprey rivers; the other at the southwest corner of Lake Winnipisiogee. Merrymeeting bay is situated at the easterly end of the same lake, and Portsmouth harbor opens on the Atlantic.

Islands.—The only islands worthy of note are the Isles of Shoals, seven in number, off Portsmouth harbor, and numerous islets in Winnipisiogee lake. Of the latter, Long, Cow, and Davis's, are the largest, and are in a high state of cultivation.

Climate.—The climate, like that of the states adjacent, is subject to the extremes of heat and cold, but the air is generally salubrious and pure. Along the seaboard, invalids subject to complaints of the lungs generally suffer from the ocean winds. Morning and evening fires become necessary from Septemtember till May. The streams are generally locked up in ice, and in the open country the snow often abides on the earth from November till April, and in the woods till May or June.

Cities and Chief Towns.—Concord is the capital. Manchester and Portsmouth are cities. The other principal towns are Amherst, Alton, Chester, Claremont, Dover, Derry, Exeter, Franklin, Gilford, Gilmantown, Goffstown, Hanover, Haverhill, Hopkinton, Keene, Lancaster, Meredith, Nashua, New Market, Ossipee, Peterborough, Plymouth, Rochester, Sandwich, Sanbornton, Somersworth, Strafford, Warner, Walpole, Weare, and Winchester.

Productive Resources.—The chief products of this state are horses, mules, horned cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, eggs, sugar, butter, cheese, hay, wood, lumber, wheat, rye, barley, oats, buckwheat, potatoes, and Indian corn. Of the mineral resources there are iron, lead, silver, tin, zinc, manganese, soapstone, granite, feldspar, and mica.

Manufactures.—The principal manufactures of this state are cotton and woollen goods, cast-iron, paper, leather, boots and shoes, carriages, furniture, hats, pottery-ware, mechanical and agricultural instruments, &c.

Railroads and Canals.—There about 600 miles of railroads in New Hampshire, a large proportion of them radiating from Concord, the political capital of the state, to almost every point of the compass. The only canals in the state are those for facilitating the navigation of the Merrimac river.

Commerce.—New Hampshire has but the single port of Portsmouth on the

Atlantic, and its direct foreign commerce heretofore has been extremely small, amounting in the aggregate to less than $60,000 in 1851; but the increased facilities afforded by the opening of railroad communication between Portsmouth and the interior of the state will materially enlarge its foreign trade. The shipping owned within the state amounts to about 23,000 tons.

EDUCATION.—The principal literary institutions of the state are, Dartmouth college, at Hanover, attached to which is the New Hampshire Medical school; and theological seminaries at Gilmanton, Concord, and New Hampton. There are also 70 or 80 academies, and about 3,000 common schools throughout the state.

POPULATION.—In 1790 141,899; in 1800, 183,762; in 1810, 214,360; in 1820, 244,161; in 1830, 269,328; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows :—

COUNTIES.	1850.	1840.	COUNTIES.	1850.	1840.	COUNTIES.	1850.	1840.
Belknap	17,721	17,988	Grafton	42,343	42,311	Strafford	29,364	23,166
Carroll	20,156	19,973	Hillsborough	57,477	42,494	Sullivan	19,375	20,340
Cheshire	30,144	26,429	Merrimac	38,445	36,253			
Coos	11,853	9,849	Rockingham	51,086	45,771	Total	317,964	284,574

Number of slaves in 1790, 158; in 1800, 8; in 1840, 1.

GOVERNMENT.—The legislative power is vested in a senate, of 12 members, and house of representatives, of about 300 members, and the executive power in a governor and five councillors, all elected by the people, the second Tuesday in March. The right of suffrage is vested in every male inhabitant, of twenty-one years, excepting paupers and persons not taxed. The judiciary power is vested in a superior court, and court of common pleas. Judges are appointed by the governor and council during good behavior, or until seventy years of age.

HISTORY.—The first permanent settlements in New Hampshire were made at Little Harbor, Portsmouth, and Dover, in 1623. In 1641, all the colonists of this state placed themselves under the protection of Massachusetts, and formed a part of the county of Norfolk. In 1679, it was again constituted a separate province by Charles II., and in 1680, the first assembly convened. In 1690, it reunited with Massachusetts, from which, two years after, it was again separated against the wishes of the people. In 1695, the two provinces were placed under the jurisdiction of New York, but were reunited in 1702, and thus continued until 1741, when a separate government was appointed over each, and New Hampshire ever after constituted a distinct government. During the war of independence the government was conducted by a temporary administration. The state constitution was established in 1784, which, with the amendments of 1792, forms the one at present in force. In 1788 this state, in convention, adopted the constitution of the United States.

PRESIDENTS AND GOVERNORS UNDER THE ROYAL GOVERNMENT.

John Cutts, President.....1680
Richard Waldron, President.....1681
Edward Cranfield, Lieutenant-Governor.....1682
Walter Barefoote, Deputy-Governor.....1685
Joseph Dudley, President of New England.....1686
Sir Edmund Andros, Governor of New England..1687
John Usher, Lieutenant-Governor.....1692
William Partridge, Lieutenant-Governor.....1697
Samuel Allen, Governor.....1698
Lord Belmont, Governor of N. Y., N. H., & Mass.1699
Joseph Dudley, Governor of N. H. and Mass.....1702
George Vaughan, Lieutenant-Governor.....1715
Samuel Shute, Governor of N. H. and Mass.....1716
John Wentworth, Lieutenant-Governor.....1717
William Burnet, Governor of N. H. and Mass.....1728
Jonathan Belcher, Governor of do. do.....1730
David Dunbar, Lieutenant-Governor.....1731
Benning Wentworth, Governor.....1741
John Wentworth, Governor.....1767
Matthew Thornton, President of Provincial Cong.1775
Meshech Weare, President from 1776 to the close of the Revolution.....1784

PRESIDENTS OF THE CONSTITUTION OF 1784.

Meshech Weare.....1784
John Langdon.....1785
John Sullivan.....1786
John Langdon.....1788
John Sullivan.....1789
Josiah Bartlett.....1790

GOVERNORS UNDER THE PRESENT CONSTITUTION.

Josiah Bartlett.....1792
John T. Gilman.....1794
John Langdon.....1805
Jeremiah Smith.....1809
John Langdon.....1810
William Plumer.....1812
John T. Gilman.....1813
William Plumer.....1816
Samuel Bell.....1819
Levi Woodbury.....1823
David L. Morrill.....1824
Benjamin Pierce.....1827
John Bell.....1828
Benjamin Pierce.....1829
Matthew Harvey.....1830
Samuel Dinsmoor.....1831
William Badger.....1835
Isaac Hill.....1836
John Page.....1839
Henry Hubbard.....1842
John H. Steele.....1844
Anthony Colby.....1846
Jared W. Williams...1847
Samuel W. Dinsmoor.1850
Noah Martin.....1852

VERMONT.*

Vermont lies between 42° 44′ and 45° north latitude, and 71° 33′ and 73° 25′ east longitude from Greenwich, and is bounded north by Canada; east by New Hampshire, from which it is separated by Connecticut river; south by Massachusetts; and west by New York, from which it is separated, in part, by Lake Champlain, and contains 10,200 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The surface of this state is generally uneven, and a great part of it mountainous. A large proportion of the soil is fertile, and adapted to the various purposes of northern agriculture. It is generally deep, of a dark color, rich, moist, warm, loamy, and seldom parched by drought. The "intervales" along the rivers and lakes are regarded as the best for tillage; and much of the land among the mountains is excellent for grazing, and here there are found many fine farms.

Mountains—The Green mountains, so named on account of the evergreens with which they are covered, extend in a lofty, unbroken range, quite through the central part of the state, from north to south. In the southern part of Washington county they are separated into two ridges, the most westerly of which is much the highest. The highest elevations in this ridge are Killington peak, Camel's Hump, or "Camel's Rump," as it is commonly called, and the "Chin," in Mansfield mountains. Ascutney is another noted mountain of this state, lying at the southward of Windsor.

Rivers and Lakes.—The principal rivers are the Connecticut, Lamoille, Onion, Missisque, Winooski, White, Black, Passumpsic, Deerfield, West, and Otter Creek. Lakes Champlain and Memphremamgog lie partly in this state. Among the smaller bodies of water are Lakes Dunmore and Bombazine.

Islands.—The principal of these are North and South Hero, and La Motte, all of which are in Lake Champlain.

Climate.—The climate is remarkably healthy, but is subject to great extremes of heat and cold, the range of temperature varying from 27° below zero Fahrenheit to 100° above. Winter usually commences in its greatest severity early in December, and often continues till April. During this season there is generally a prevalence of fair weather, and the cold is more uniform and steady than in other parts of New England near the coast.

Chief Towns.—Montpelier is the capital. The other large towns are Barry, Brattleboro', Brandon, Barnet, Bennington, Burlington, Chester, Danville, Enosburgh, Fairfield, Georgia, Hartford, Hartland, Highgate, Middlebury, Milton, Newbury, Northfield, Norwich, Rockingham, Rutland, Randolph, Springfield, Thetford, St. Albans, Weathersfield, Windsor, and Woodstock.

Productive Resources.—The chief products are horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, butter, cheese, sugar, wax, silk, wool, lumber, pot and pearl ashes, hay, hops, hemp, flax, wheat, rye, barley, buckwheat, oats, potatoes, and Indian corn. Of the mineral or fossil resources, lead, iron, copperas, marble, limestone, and granite, form the principal.

Manufactures.—Leather, bar and cast iron, boots and shoes, linseed oil, nails, mechanical and agricultural implements, cotton and woollen goods, paper, &c., are among the products of manufacturing industry. Marble is quarried, sawn, and polished, in several places.

Railroads and Canals.—There are several long lines of railroad in Ver-

* Vermont, which signifies, in French, "Green Mountain," was first so called by the inhabitants, in their declaration of independence, in 1777.

73 Lon. West from Greenwich
72
LOWER CANADA
45
Berkshire
Highgate
Missisque R.
Troy
Derby
Canaan
Lemington
Montgomery
FRANKLIN
ORLEANS
St. Albans
Lowell
Irasburg
Bloomfield
Fletcher
Bakersfield
Barton
Fairfax
Johnston
Lambille River
Cranesbury
Sutton
Brunswick
Milton
Westford
Cambridge
HydePark
LAMOILLE
Lyndon
Guildhall
Morrison
Hardwick
Essex
Mansfield Mt. 4280
Elmore
CALEDONIA
Burlington
Jericho
CHITTENDEN
Danville
Concord
Shelburn
Waterbury
Peacham
Waterford
Barnet
Charlotte
MONTPELIER
Falls
Connecticut River
Monkton
Bancke
Vergennes
Northfield
Topsham
Lincoln
Warren
Williamstown
Newbury
Addison
New Haven
Brookfield
Haverhill
Bradford
ADDISON
ORANGE
Middlebury
Chelsea
Bridport
Hancock
Randolph
Fairlee
Shoreham
Goshen
Rochester
Strafford
Thetford
Orwell
Royalton
White R.
Brandon
Stockbridge
Norwich
Sudbury
Pittsford
Barnard
Hanover
Plymouth
Benson
Hartford
Killington Peak
RUTLAND
Rutland
Woodstock
Castleton
Hartland
Poultney
Plymouth
Clarendon
Windsor
Cornish
White hall
Mt. Holly
Merrimack R.
Wallingford
Cavendish
Welles
Weathersfield
Pawlet
Danby
Newport
Andover
Chester
Rupert
Dorset
Peru
Rockingham
Manchester
Winhall
Bellows Falls
Arlington
Townsend
Stratton
Cambridge
WINDHAM
Shaftsbury
Wardsboro
New Fane
Keene
Fayetteville
Wilmington
Bennington
Brattleboro
Pownal
Halifax
Guilford
Vernon
MASSACHUSETTS
VERMONT
Scale of Miles
10 20 30
4 Lon. E. from Washington 5
43
44

mont, extending from the borders of Massachusetts and New Hampshire to Burlington and Canada, and from Rutland to Whitehall and Troy in New York. There are about 400 miles of railroad in the state. There are some short canals, designed to overcome obstructions in the navigation of the Connecticut and White rivers.

Commerce.—The foreign commerce of Vermont is mostly with Canada. Its principal port is Burlington, on Lake Champlain. Its domestic and foreign trade amounts in value to about one and a half millions of dollars annually.

Education.—The oldest literary institution is the university at Burlington, founded in 1791. There are also, Middlebury college, Norwich university, and a medical school at Woodstock, all in a flourishing condition. Besides these, there are many academies, and some 3,000 common schools in the state.

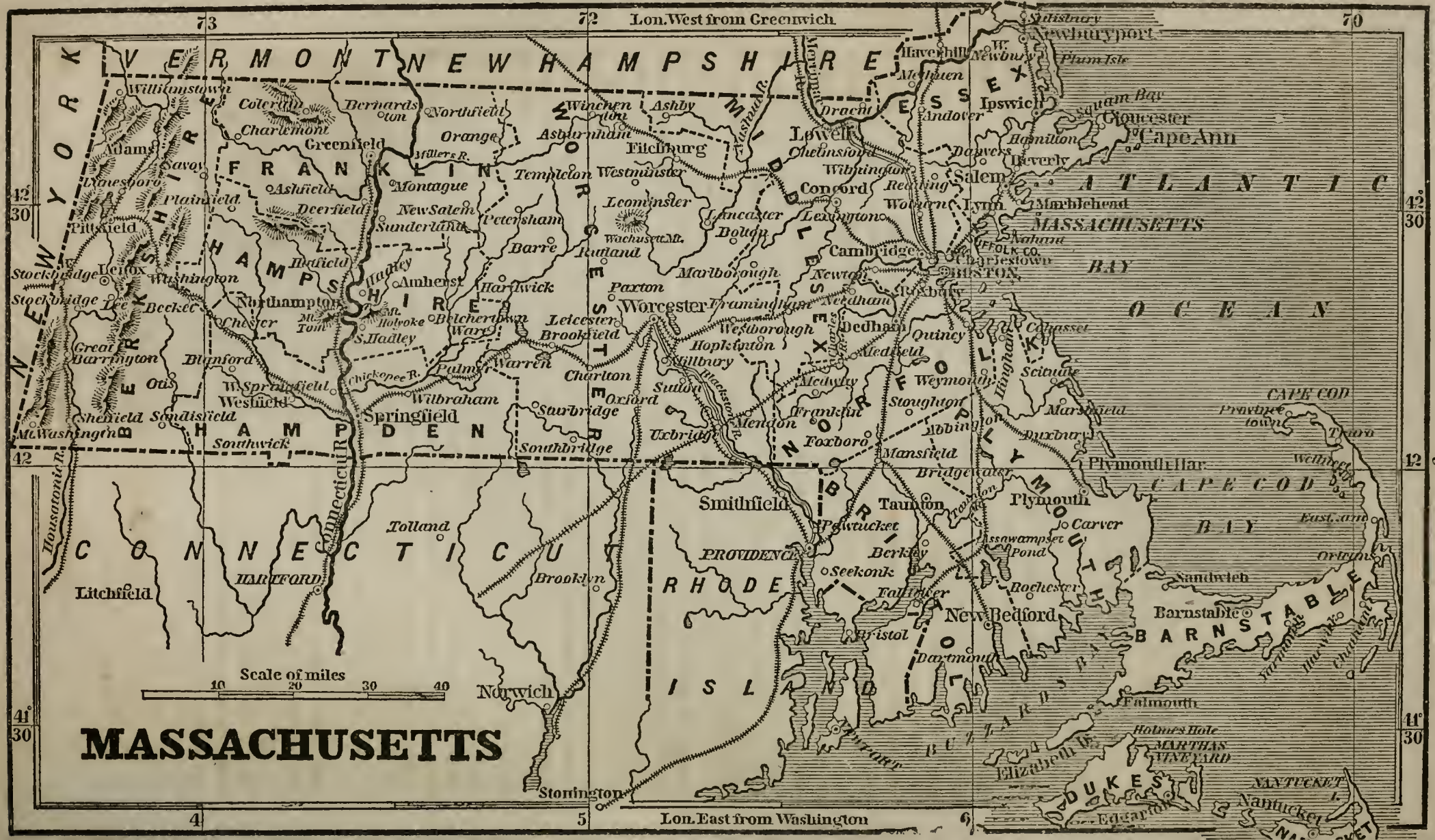
Population.—In 1790, 85,416; in 1800, 154,465; in 1810, 217,713, in 1820, 235,764; in 1830, 280,652; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows:—

Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.
Addison	26,549	23,583	Grand Isle	4,145	3,883	Washington	24,654	23,506
Bennington	18,589	16,872	Lamoille	10,872	10,475	Windham	29,062	27,442
Caledonia	23,595	21,891	Orange	27,296	27,873	Windsor	38,320	40,356
Chittenden	29,036	22,977	Orleans	15,707	13,634			
Essex	4,650	4,226	Rutland	33,059	30,699	Total	314,120	291,948
Franklin	28,586	24,531						

Government.—The legislative power is vested in a senate of thirty members, and a house, consisting of one member from each town; and the executive power, in a governor, or, in his absence, a lieutenant-governor; all chosen annually by the people, on the first Tuesday in September. The judiciary powers are vested in a supreme court of five judges, and county courts (each composed of one judge of the supreme court, and two assistant judges), all chosen annually by the legislature. A council of thirteen censors is chosen once in seven years, to supervise the legislative and executive branches of government. The right of suffrage vests in male citizens of twenty-one years of age, who have resided in the state one year, and are of quiet and peaceable behavior.

History.—The first permanent settlement in Vermont was made at Fort Dummer, in 1724, though the northwesterly part of this state was visited by Champlain, and others, as early as 1609. In the year 1739, New Hampshire claimed jurisdiction of the territory, and made many grants of land west of Connecticut river. The same territory was also claimed by New York, whose right was established by decision of the crown, in 1764. In the meantime, New York had also made grants to others of the same tracts, which caused continued disputes, and even resistance, for years. In 1774, New York passed severe enactments on the subject; but, at the commencement of the revolution, the contest was suspended. In 1777, the people, preferring a government of their own, met in convention, and declared themselves a free and independent state. In consequence of these conflicting claims, Congress dared not admit Vermont into the Union at the commencement of the revolutionary war, for fear of offending New Hampshire and New York, although she had expressed a readiness to throw off the British yoke. By another convention, held at Windsor, in 1777, a state constitution was adopted, but the government was not organized before 1778. In 1786, this constitution was modified, and was again revised in 1793. In 1790, the controversy with New York was ended, by the payment of $30,000, and the year following Vermont was admitted into the Union as a sovereign state. Motto of the seal, "Freedom and Unity."

GOVERNORS.							
Thomas Chittenden	1778	Isaac Tichenor	1808	Ezra Butler	1826	William Slade	1845
Moses Robinson	1789	Jonas Galusha	1809	Samuel C. Crafts	1828	Horace Eaton	1846
Thomas Chittenden	1790	Martin Chittenden	1813	William A. Palmer	1831	Carlos Coolidge	1850
Isaac Tichenor	1797	Jonas Galusha	1815	Silas H. Jenison	1836	C. K. Williams	1851
Israel Smith	1807	Richard Skinner	1820	Charles Paine	1841	Erastus Fairbanks	1853
		C. P. Van Ness	1823	John Mattocks	1843		


MASSACHUSETTS
Lon. West from Greenwich
Lon. East from Washington
Scale of miles
10 20 30 40
VERMONT
NEW HAMPSHIRE
NEW YORK
CONNECTICUT
RHODE ISLAND
ATLANTIC OCEAN
MASSACHUSETTS BAY
CAPE COD BAY
BERKSHIRE
FRANKLIN
HAMPSHIRE
HAMPDEN
WORCESTER
MIDDLESEX
ESSEX
NORFOLK
BRISTOL
PLYMOUTH
BARNSTABLE
DUKES
Williamstown
Adams
Lanesboro
Pittsfield
Lenox
Stockbridge
Lee
Great Barrington
Sheffield
Mt. Washington
Colerain
Charlemont
Greenfield
Bernardston
Northfield
Orange
Ashfield
Deerfield
Montague
New Salem
Sunderland
Hatfield
Northampton
Amherst
Hadley
Mt. Holyoke
S. Hadley
Belchertown
Ware
Palmer
Warren
Wilbraham
Springfield
Westfield
Blanford
Otis
Sandisfield
Southwick
Chickopee R.
Millers R.
Winchendon
Ashby
Asburnham
Fitchburg
Templeton
Westminster
Leominster
Petersham
Barre
Rutland
Hardwick
Paxton
Worcester
Leicester
Brookfield
Charlton
Oxford
Sturbridge
Southbridge
Lancaster
Bolton
Marlborough
Framingham
Westborough
Hopkinton
Millbury
Sutton
Uxbridge
Mendon
Blackstone R.
Lowell
Chelmsford
Concord
Lexington
Cambridge
Newton
Needham
Dedham
Medfield
Medway
Franklin
Foxboro
Mansfield
Bridgewater
Taunton
Pawtucket
Berkley
Seekonk
Fall River
Bristol
Dartmouth
New Bedford
Rochester
Plymouth
Carver
Assawampset Pond
Plymouth Har.
Duxbury
Marshfield
Scituate
Hingham
Cohasset
Quincy
Weymouth
Stoughton
Abbington
Haverhill
Methuen
Andover
Ipswich
Newburyport
Plum Isle
Salem
Lynn
Danvers
Hamilton
Beverly
Marblehead
Nahant
Charlestown
BOSTON
Roxbury
Gloucester
Cape Ann
Squam Bay
Provincetown
Truro
Wellfleet
East Ham
Orleans
Sandwich
Barnstable
Falmouth
Holmes Hole
MARTHAS VINEYARD
Elizabeth Is.
Edgarton
NANTUCKET I.
Nantucket
Tolland
Brooklyn
Norwich
Stonington
Litchfield
HARTFORD
Connecticut R.
Housatonic R.
Merrimac R.
Nashua R.
Charles R.
Taunton R.
Mt. Tom
Mt. Washington
Lee
Stockbridge
Pittsfield
Lanesboro
Adams
Savoy
Plainfield
Washington
Becket
Chester
Blanford
Otis
Sheffield
Sandisfield
Southwick
Wilbraham
Palmer
Warren
Brookfield
Charlton
Oxford
Sutton
Mendon
Uxbridge
Hopkinton
Westborough
Framingham
Marlborough
Lancaster
Bolton
Wachusett Mt.
Rutland
Leominster
Westminster
Fitchburg
Ashby
Winchendon
Orange
Northfield
Bernardston
Colerain
Charlemont
Millers R.
Ashfield
Deerfield
Montague
Hadley
Mt. Holyoke
Chickopee R.
Wilbraham
Springfield
Westfield
Blanford
Otis
Sheffield
Sandisfield
Southwick
Southbridge
Sturbridge
Brookfield
Leicester
Hardwick
Paxton
Rutland
Lancaster
Lexington
Concord
Wilmington
Reading
Woburn
Lynn
Salem
Marblehead
Nahant
Charlestown
Roxbury
Cambridge
Newton
Needham
Dedham
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Cohasset
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Scituate
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Abbington
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Provincetown
Truro
Wellfleet
Orleans
Chatham
Yarmouth
Harwich
Chatham
Newburyport
Salisbury
Plum Isle
Haverhill
Newbury
Merrimac R.
Nashua R.
Charles R.
Taunton R.
Blackstone R.
Chickopee R.
Millers R.
Connecticut R.
Housatonic R.
Scale of miles
10 20 30 40
73
72
70
42 30
42
41 30
4
5
6
9

MASSACHUSETTS.*

Massachusetts, the mother-state of New England, lies between 41° 23′ and 42° 52′ north latitude, and 69° 50′ and 73° 30′ west longitude from Greenwich, and is bounded north by Vermont and New Hampshire; east by the Atlantic; south by Rhode Island and Connecticut; and west by New York. Its superficial area is 7,500 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The surface of this state is greatly diversified, and the soil may be divided into three distinct zones—mountainous in the western, hilly in the central and northern, and level in the southeastern sections. Salt marshes are numerous in most of the maritime parts. The soil is exceedingly varied. In the southeastern part it is mostly light and sandy; interspersed, however, with numerous spots that are fertile. In the middle and northern sections, particularly toward the seaboard, it is of much better quality, but distinguished more from its superior cultivation, than its natural fertility. The more western parts, especially in the valley of the Connecticut river, have generally a strong, rich soil, excellent for grazing, and suited to most of the purposes of farming.

Mountains.—The Green mountain range passes through the western part of the state, from north to south. The principal chain takes the name of Hoosac mountains, the highest summits of which are the Saddle and Taghkanic. The other elevations, noted for their size and height, are Wachusett, Mount Tom, Mount Holyoke, Mount Toby, Blue and Pow-Wow hills.

Rivers and Bays.—The principal rivers are the Connecticut, Merrimac, Concord, Nashua, Pow-Wow, Ipswich, North, Saugus, Charles, Mystic, Neponset, Taunton, Chickapee, Deerfield, Westfield, French, Miller's, and the Housatonic. Massachusetts bay lies on the easterly side of the state, between Capes Cod and Ann. Numerous other bays indent the coast, the principal of which are, Buzzard's, Barnstable, Plymouth, and Cape Cod.

Islands.—The most noted of these are, Nantucket, Martha's Vineyard, the Elizabeth islands (sixteen in number), Plum island, and those in Massachusetts bay.

Climate.—The climate is generally favorable to health, though persons with feeble lungs, living near the seaboard, are liable to suffer from the ocean winds. The air from the interior is generally dry, serene, and salubrious. The summers are pleasant, but subject to excessive heat, often followed by a depression of temperature of 50° Fahrenheit in a few hours. The winters are generally rigorous, the thermometer often standing below zero.

Cities and Chief Towns.—The city of Boston is the capital.† Roxbury,

* Massachusetts derived its name, it is supposed, from a tribe of Indians formerly at Barnstable, or from *Moswetuset*, the Indian name of Blue Hill, a few miles south of Boston.

† Boston, the capital of Massachusetts, and metropolis of New England, occupies a peninsula, and other adjacent points, at the head of Massachusetts bay. The original town was confined to the peninsula; but this, although enlarged by artificial means, has long since proved too narrow for the growing city, which, passing the barriers thrown around it by nature, now embraces, independently of the populous towns and villages that are its offspring, the triple division of "Old Boston," "South Boston," and "East Boston." The "Neck" was formerly the only avenue from the town to the main land, but it is now united by bridges, and other avenues, to Charlestown, Cambridge, South Boston, and other surrounding points. From the west side of the city, Western avenue is continued to Brookline, on the opposite side of Charles river bay, by a costly dam one mile and a half in length, and one hundred feet broad. Proceeding from the middle of this, on which are several tide mills, a second dam divides the bay into two spacious basins. Several of the Boston railroads also enter the city, by bridges built expressly for that purpose.

The harbor extends from Nantasket to the city, and spreads from Chelsea and Nahant to Hingham, containing about seventy-five square miles. It is bespangled with upward of fifty islands, or rocks, and receives the waters from the Mystic, Charles, Neponset, and Manatticut rivers, with several other smaller streams. One of the most remarkable features connected with the harbor is costly and splendid wharves. These marks of commercial enterprise and prosperity are about 100 in number, and of various dimensions. Long wharf is 1,800

BOSTON
CHARLESTOWN
NAVY YARD
CHARLES RIVER
EAST CAMBRIDGE
Branch of Lowell R.R.
State Prison
Bunker Hill
Warren
Prescott
Putnam
Lawrence
Wood
Green
Austin
Richmond
Union
Washington
Lynde
Bow
Main
Chelsea
Ferry
Square
Frigate
Boston and Maine R.R.
Boston and Lowell R.R.
Lowell R.R.
Canal Bridge
Causeway
Andrew
Lancaster
Hillsboro
Lowell
Poplar
Allen
McLean
Blossom
Vine
Cambridge St.
Cambridge
Charles
Sudbury
Hanover
Court
Howard
Alden
Brattle
Cornhill
Elm
Union
Commercial
Lewis
Ann
Fleet
Prince
Richmond
Cooper
Battery
Hull
Sheafe
Charter
Commercial
Chelsea Ferry
Eastern R.R.
Long Wf.
Central Wf.
India Wf.
India
Broad
Liverpool
Russia
Foster's
Mt. Vernon
Chesnut
Walnut
Beacon
Byron
Pinkney
May
Charles
Southack
Myrtle
Temple
Hancock
Bowdoin
School
Derbyshire
Devonshire
Franklin
Federal
Atkinson
High
Purchase
Milk
Water
Oliver
Summer
Arch
Bedford
Essex
Lincoln
Kneeland
Harvard
Common
Tyler
Hudson
Albany
Utica
Black
Cor
Sea
South
East
Fayette
Castle
Orange
Erie
Oneida
Oswego
Genesee
Troy
Lehigh
Old Colony R.R.
First St.
Second
SOUTH BOSTON
Dover
Shawmut
Dartmouth
Cedar
Marion
Knox
Providence
Providence R.R.
Worcester R.R.
Mill Dam
Fountain
COMMON
45¾ Acres
PUBLIC GARDEN
Cemetery
Boylston
Tremont
Washington
Trenton
Albion
Village
Emerald
Madison
Suffolk
Croton
Lucerne
Hanson
Waltham
Weston
Chelsea
Harrison
Adams C.
Pleasant
Winter
West
Temple
Mason
Beach
Franklin
Mill
Water
Oliver
Broad
Purchase
Milk
Federal
Atkinson
High
Devonshire
Derbyshire
Exeter
Chauncy
State
Doane
Devonshire
Court
Tremont
Cornhill
Brattle
Howard
Alden
Hanover
Sudbury
Elm
Union
Commercial
Lewis
Ann
Fleet
Prince
Richmond
Cooper
Battery
Hull
Sheafe
Charter
Commercial
Chelsea Ferry
Eastern R.R.
Long Wf.
Central Wf.
India Wf.
India
Broad
Liverpool
Russia
Foster's
Mt. Vernon
Chesnut
Walnut
Beacon
Byron
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45¾ Acres
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Suffolk
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Adams C.
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Oliver
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Purchase
Milk
Federal
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Devonshire
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S

Cambridge, Charlestown, Salem, Newburyport, Lawrence, Lowell,* Worcester, Springfield, and New Bedford, are cities. The other populous towns are, Amherst, Andover, Adams, Attleboro', Abington, Beverly, Barnstable, Danvers. Dedham, Dorchester, Dartmouth, Fitchburgh, Framingham, Fairhaven, Fall River,

feet long, and 200 feet wide; Central wharf, 1,397 feet long, and 150 feet wide; India wharf, 980 feet long, and from 246 to 280 feet wide; and Commercial wharf is 1,100 feet long, and 160 feet wide. These, like most of the others, are lined with extensive and magnificent warehouses, constructed of the most substantial materials.

Another valuable acquisition is Boston Common, a pleasant park of about fifty acres, situated at the southwesterly slope of Beacon hill. It is pleasantly diversified with knolls, avenues, fountains, a small lake, or pond, and trees, some of the latter of which are interesting relics of colonial and revolutionary times. The common is surrounded by an iron fence, over one mile in extent. Between the common and Charles river bay lies the botanic garden, a beautiful and tasteful enclosure. On the north side of the common, and at the summit of the hill, stands the statehouse, an elegant structure, 173 feet in length, 61 feet in depth, and 120 feet in height. The top of the dome is 230 feet above tide-water. The view from the top of the statehouse is very extensive and variegated; perhaps nothing in the country is superior to it. To the east appears the bay and harbor of Boston, interspersed with beautiful islands; and in the distance beyond, the wide extended ocean. To the north the eye is met by Charlestown, with its interesting and memorable heights, of Bunker hill, crowned with the monument, 220 feet in height, and the navy-yard of the United States; the towns of Chelsea, Malden, and Medford, and other villages, and the natural forests mingling in the distant horizon. To the west, is a fine view of the Charles river and bay, the ancient town of Cambridge, rendered venerable for the university, now about two hundred years old; of the flourishing villages of Cambridgeport and East Cambridge, in the latter of which is a large glass manufacturing establishment; of the highly cultivated towns of Brighton, Brookline, and Newton; and to the south is Roxbury, which seems to be only a continuation of Boston, and which is rapidly increasing; Dorchester, a fine, rich, agricultural town, with Milton and Quincy beyond; and still farther south, the Blue hills, at the distance of eight or nine miles, which seem to bound the prospect.

Bunker Hill Monument.

Faneuil hall, which is justly styled the "cradle of American liberty," was originally built in 1740, for a town-hall and market-house. It has been enlarged and beautified on several occasions, and will always be a place of historical interest to the lovers of liberty. Adjoining it on the east is Faneuil Hall market, one of the most splendid and commodious edifices of the kind in the country. It is constructed of Quincy granite, or sienite, 540 feet in length, 50 feet wide, and two stories high. The courthouse, merchants' exchange, postoffice, customhouse, Massachusetts general hospital, the Old South meetinghouse, Park-street, Brattle-street, and Trinity churches, the Tremont house, Revere house, the Atheneum, the jail, Society of Natural History, the Houses of Industry, Correction, and Reformation, are among other objects of interest. The water-works may be regarded as one of the most important of the recent improvements. By a series of pipes and reservoirs, water is conveyed to all parts of the city proper, and East and South Boston, from Long Pond, or Lake Cochituate, a distance of nearly 20 miles. It will supply 10,000,000 gallons of water daily, and cost not much less than $5,000,000.

Railroads diverge from this city in various directions, connecting it with Plymouth, Cape Cod, New Bedford, Fall River, Providence, Stonington, New York (via Worcester, Springfield, Hartford, and New Haven); with Albany, via Worcester and Springfield; with Vermont, via Fitchburgh; also, with Lake Winnipisiogee and the White mountains in New Hampshire, via Nashua, Concord, and Meredith Bridge; also via Haverhill, Exeter, and Dover; with Lawrence, via Lowell and Manchester; with Augusta, Me., via Salem, Newburyport, Portsmouth, Portland, and Bath.

Boston is pre-eminently distinguished for its efforts in behalf of education. Its public schools are unrivalled in excellence, and it numbers among its citizens some of the most munificent patrons of learning, literature, and science; which, with its many eminent literary and philosophical societies, has led to its being honored with the title of the "Athens of America."

Mount Auburn, a beautiful cemetery, belonging to Boston, is picturesquely situated in Cambridge, about five miles out of the city. Within this interesting "city of the dead" rest the remains of many of the illustrious sons of New England.

The population of Boston in 1700 was 7,000; in 1722, 10,567; in 1765, 15,520; in 1790, 18,033; in 1800, 24,937; in 1810, 33,250; in 1820, 43,298; in 1830, 61,392; in 1840, 93,383; in 1850, 138,788.

* Lowell, the second city in the state in population, is situated at the confluence of Concord and Merrimac rivers, 25 miles northwest of Boston. From an insignificant village, in 1822, it has sprung up into a wealthy and populous city, celebrated over the world for its unrivalled manufactories of cotton and woollen fabrics, by which it has gained the title of the "Manchester of America." The secret of its prosperity lies in the vast water-power which enterprise and skill have turned into available channels. By a canal, which connects the Merrimac, below Pawtucket Falls, with Concord river, water is conveyed to the town, and distributed to the various factories. Of these, about 30 are engaged in the manufacture of cotton; a number of others produce woollen fabrics of various kinds, as carpets, broadcloths, cassimeres, calicoes, machinery for railroads, &c. About $20,000,000 are invested in these operations.

Lowell is pleasantly situated, and is laid out with broad streets; and the inhabitants are distinguished for industry and good morals. The operatives in the factories are far above the ignorance and degradation which belong to those similarly employed in some other countries. The "Lowell Offering," a periodical composed of communications from the young women of the "mills," is an instance of the truth of this remark. The principal public buildings are, the courthouse, city-hall, and Mechanics' hall, the latter of which is devoted to literary and scientific intelligence, and furnished with a museum and library; and the public schools, which receive a very liberal support. Lowell is connected with Boston by the Middlesex canal, and by railroad: there is also railroad communication with all the principal towns of the surrounding country.

The population of Lowell, in 1820, was 100, or less; in 1830, 6,474; in 1840, 20,796; in 1850, 32,964.

Gloucester, Haverhill, Hingham, Ipswich, Lynn, Marblehead, Mendon, Middleborough, Newbury, Newton, Northampton, Nantucket, Pittsfield, Plymouth, Quincy, Rochester, Scituate, Sandwich, Taunton, Westfield, West Springfield, Weymouth, and Williamstown.

Productive Resources.—The principal products are horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, eggs, butter, cheese, silk, wool, hay, fish, spermaceti, whale and other fish oil, wheat, rye, barley, oats, buckwheat, potatoes, orchard and garden fruits, and Indian corn. Among the fossil resources are marble, granite, freestone, slate, flagstone, and various kinds of ochre and clay. This state abounds in mines of iron ore, and has also some coal.

Manufactures.—Massachusetts is distinguished as a manufacturing state. Water-power for the supply of machinery is abundant in nearly every section of the state. There are five or six hundred cotton and woollen factories. Calico-printing and carpet-weaving is also largely carried on. Boots and shoes, leather, wrought and cast iron, straw hats, cabinet-work, paper, and oil, are extensively manufactured. Fire-arms are also manufactured at the national armory at Springfield.

Railroads and Canals.—Massachusetts has a greater number of railroads, in proportion to its area, than any other state in the Union. There are, within the limits of the state, about forty different roads, exclusive of their various branches, with a total length of over 1,200 miles, and built at an aggregate cost of rising $50,000,000. Their principal centres are Boston, Worcester, Springfield, Lowell, and Fitchburgh. The principal canals of Massachusetts are, the Middlesex, 27 miles long, connecting the Merrimac river at Lowell with Boston harbor; the Blackstone, 45 miles long, from Worcester to Providence; and the Hampshire and Hampden, 22 miles long, from the Farmington canal (now disused), on the Connecticut line, to Northampton.

Commerce.—The commerce of Massachusetts centres chiefly at Boston, and is inferior only to that of two other states (New York and Louisiana) in the Union. Its exports and imports in 1851 were forty-five millions of dollars. Amount of shipping owned within the state, 685,442 tons.

Education.—The university at Cambridge is the oldest and best-endowed school in the United States; attached to it are schools of law, medicine, divinity, and science. Williams' college, at Williamstown, and Amherst college, are also flourishing institutions. At Andover, Newton, and Worcester, theological seminaries are established. Academies and common schools exist throughout the state, numbering nearly 5,000.

Population.—In 1790, 378,717; in 1800, 423,245; in 1810, 472,040; in 1820, 523,287; in 1830, 610,408; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows:—

Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.
Barnstable	35,276	32,548	Hampden	51,281	37,366	Plymouth	55,697	47,373
Berkshire	49,591	41,745	Hampshire	35,732	30,897	Suffolk	144,507	95,773
Bristol	76,192	60,164	Middlesex	161,383	106,611	Worcester	130,789	95,313
Dukes	4,540	3,958	Nantucket	8,452	9,012			
Essex	131,300	94,987	Norfolk	78,892	53,140	Total	994,499	737,699
Franklin	30,867	28,812						

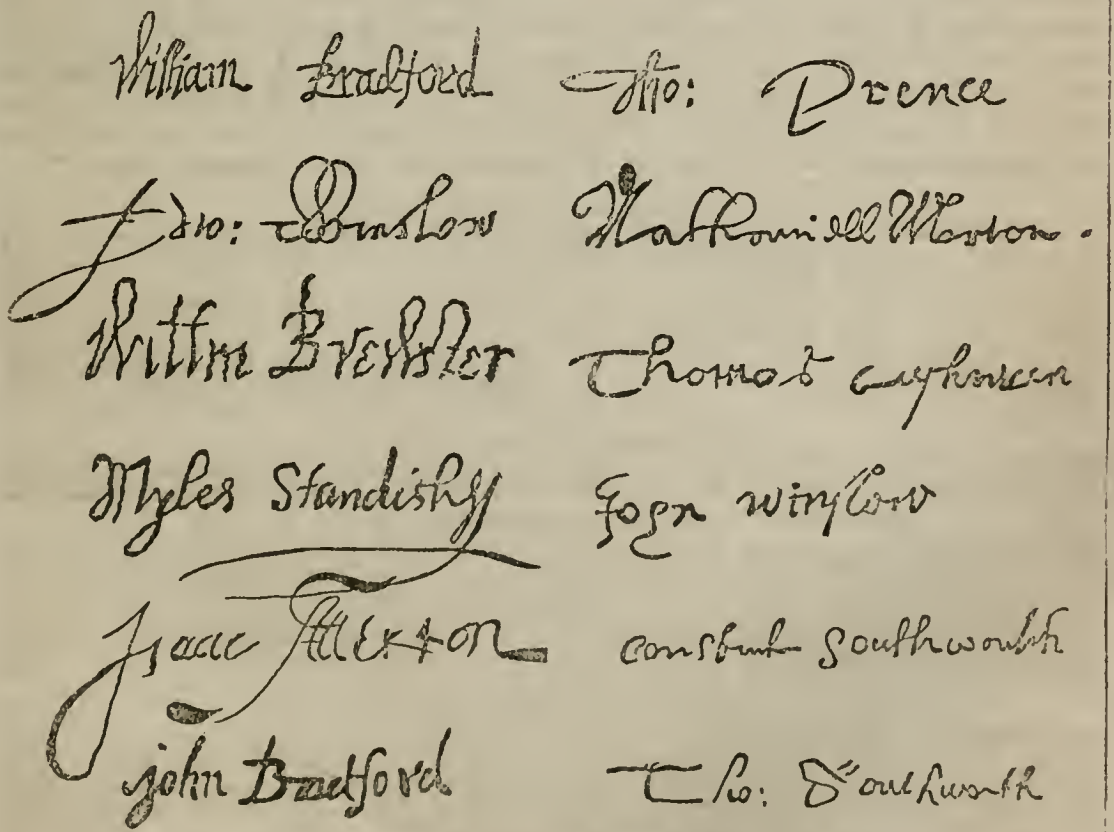
Government.—The executive power is vested in a governor, lieutenant-governor, and council; and the legislative power, in a senate, of forty members, and a house of representatives; all elected annually, by the people, on the second Monday in November, excepting the council, which is chosen by the legislature. The judiciary is vested in a supreme court, court of common pleas, and such other courts as the legislature may establish. The judges are appointed by the governor, and hold their offices during good behavior. The right of suffrage is enjoyed by every male-citizen, twenty-one years of age (excepting paupers, and persons under guardianship), who has resided in the state one year, and in the election district six months, and shall have paid a state or county tax (or been exempted therefrom) two years next preceding any election.

OLD COLONY SEAL

History.—The coasts of Massachusetts, after Cabot and Cartier's voyages, were annually visited for trade with the natives, and for fishing, yet little was known of the interior, until Captain Smith, the hero of Virginia, explored its shores from the Penobscot to Cape Cod, and penetrated its interminable forests. It was Smith who gave that whole country the name of New England. That region was not permanently settled until 1620, when a party of 101 Independents, who had fled from England to Holland, in 1608, in consequence of persecutions, obtained a grant of land from the Virginia Company, intending to settle within their jurisdiction. But through accident or treachery, they reached the coast within the jurisdiction of the Plymouth Company,* from whom they subsequently obtained a patent. The great moral spectacle which this little company of emigrants presented, can not be passed by unnoticed. Deprived of the privilege of worshipping God according to the dictates of their own consciences and judgments, they left England, with their pastor, John Robinson, and became voluntary exiles in Holland. They cherished the sentiment, however, "England, with all thy faults, I love thee still," and they felt a yearning to live where they might retain their language and laws in their purity and strength. They therefore turned their thoughts toward the wilds of America, where no restraining power should interfere with their religious privileges; and obtaining a grant from the London or Virginia Company, they left Delft Haven, in Holland, August 1, 1620, in the Speedwell. They were joined at Southampton, England, by the May-Flower, bearing a number of business men of London, who had formed a partnership with those from Holland. The Speedwell, however, proved unseaworthy, and the whole company, numbering in men, women, and children, as before remarked, 101 souls, sailed from Plymouth in the May-Flower on the 16th of September. They reached the American coast, and descried the bleak hills of Cape Cod, on the 19th of November. For a month they laid at anchor, and in the meanwhile they entered into a solemn political compact, and chose John Carver their governor for the first year. Exploring parties were sent ashore to find a good place for settlement; and on the 21st of December the harbor of Plymouth was sounded, and found fit for shipping, the shore well-watered and wooded, and there they landed, and commenced a settlement. They named the place New Plymouth, and soon afterward obtained a charter. In 1628, the Plymouth council granted to a number of nonconformists, of Devonshire, the territory of New England, lying between the Merrimac and Charles rivers, and three miles beyond, and extending to the South sea. A company of planters, with their families, were sent out, and founded the town of Salem. In 1629, the patentees obtained a charter from Charles I., confirming the grant of the council, and incorporating them under the name of the Governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay. Subsequent to this period, other grants and accessions were made, and the colony of Massachusetts extended its jurisdiction over the present state of Rhode Island, a

* In 1606, James the First of England, claiming all the territory lying between the latitude of Cape Fear on the south, and of Halifax on the north, divided it into two nearly equal districts. One, extending from the 41st to the 45th degree, he called North Virginia; the other, extending from the 34th to the 38th degree, he called South Virginia. On the 20th day of April, 1606, he issued a charter to a "company of knights, gentlemen, and merchants," of the West of England, called the Plymouth Company, granting to them the right of settlement of the territory of North Virginia. At the same time a similar charter was granted to like persons residing in London, and called the London Company for the settlement of South Virginia. It was stipulated that neither should form a settlement within a hundred miles of the other.

LANDING OF THE PILGRIMS AT PLYMOUTH ROCK, MASS.



Facsimiles of the Signatures of Principal Passengers in the May-Flower.

part of Connecticut, New Hampshire, Maine, and Acadia. In 1641, the settlements of New Hampshire were incorporated with Massachusetts. In 1643, the four colonies, Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven, entered into articles of confederation, under the title of the "United Colonies of New England."* In 1652, Maine placed itself under the protection of Massachusetts, called the county of "Yorkshire," and remained a part of her territory, with some modifications, until it became a sovereign state. In 1686, the charter government of Massachusetts Bay was taken from her, and a president placed over the dominion from Narraganset bay to Nova Scotia. The same year, Sir Edmund Andros arrived at Boston, with a commission as royal governor of all New England. Plymouth, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island, immediately submitted to his jurisdiction. A few months after, Connecticut was added, and in 1688, his power was further extended over New Jersey and New York. In 1689, Plymouth was united to Massachusetts by royal order, and its old charter confirmed. In 1691, Plymouth, Massachusetts, Maine, and Acadia, were formed into one royal colony, under the name of "Massachusetts." In 1699, New Hampshire and Massachusetts were placed under the jurisdiction of New York, but were again reunited in 1702, and thus continued until 1741, when a final separation took place. In conformity to the original grant of the Plymouth Company, Massachusetts claimed an indefinite extent of country westward, which was adjusted with New York, by ceding all her territory west of a line, running north and south, one mile east of Geneva, and was known as the "Genesee Country." In 1776, on the declaration of independence, Massachusetts formed a state constitution, which went into operation in 1780, and, with the exception of the amendment in 1820, is the same as the one of the present day. In 1778, it ratified the constitution of the United States. The motto of the seal is, *Ense petit placidam sub libertate quietem*—"By his sword he seeks the calm repose of liberty."

First Coin minted in the American Colonies.

COLONIAL GOVERNORS ELECTED BY THE PEOPLE

Plymouth Colony.		*Col. of Massachusetts Bay.*	
John Carver.....1620	William Bradford....1639	John Winthrop.....1630	John Endicott.....1644
William Bradford....1621	Edward Winslow ...1644	Thomas Dudley.....1634	Thomas Dudley.....1645
Edward Winslow....1633	William Bradford....1645	John Haynes.....1635	John Winthrop.....1646
Thomas Prince.....1634	Thomas Prince.....1657	Henry Vane.....1636	John Endicott.....1649
William Bradford....1635	Josiah Winslow.....1673	John Winthrop.....1637	Richard Bellingham..1654
Edward Winslow....1636	Thomas Hinckley ...1680	Thomas Dudley.....1640	John Endicott.....1655
William Bradford....1637		Richard Bellingham..1641	Richard Bellingham..1665
Thomas Prince.....1638		John Winthrop.....1642	John Leverett.....1673
			Simon Bradstreet....1679

COLONIAL RULERS APPOINTED BY THE KING.

Joseph Dudley President of New England.....1685
Sir Edmund Andros do. do. do. do. 1686
Simon Bradstreet, Governor of Massachusetts Bay.1689
Thomas Hinckley, Governor of Plymouth Colony.1689

GOVERNORS UNDER THE SECOND CHARTER APPOINTED BY THE KING.

Sir William Phips.....1692	William Dummer, Lieut. Gov .1723	Thomas Pownall.....1757
Wm. Stoughton, Lieut. Gov...1694	William Burnet.....1728	Thos. Hutchinson, Lieut Gov..1760
Earl of Bellamont.....1699	William Dummer, Lieut. Gov.1729	Francis Bernard.....1760
Wm. Stoughton, Lieut. Gov...1700	William Taylor, Lieut. Gov ...1730	Thos. Hutchinson, Lieut. Gov.1770
Joseph Dudley.....1702	Jonathan Belcher.....1730	Thomas Hutchinson.....1770
William Taylor, Lieut. Gov...1715	William Shirley.....1741	Thomas Gage.....1774
Samuel Shute.....1716	Spencer Phips, Lieut. Gov....1749	

GOVERNORS UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

John Hancock.....1780	James Sullivan.....1807	Levi Lincoln.....1825	Marcus Morton.....1843
James Bowdoin.....1785	Christopher Gore....1809	John Davis.....1834	George N. Briggs....1844
John Hancock.....1687	Elbridge Gerry.....1810	S. T. Armstrong, L.T.1835	Geo. S. Boutwell....1851
Samuel Adams.....1794	Caleb Strong.....1812	Edward Everett.....1836	John H. Clifford.....1853
Increase Sumner....1797	John Brooks.....1816	Marcus Morton.....1840	
Caleb Strong.....1800	William Eustis.....1823	John Davis.....1841	

* In 1651, the General Court of Massachusetts ordained that coin should be issued; that it should have a double ring, with this inscription: MASSACHUSETTS, and a tree in the centre, on one side, and NEW ENGLAND and the year of the coinage upon the other. Massachusetts was the only colony that ever issued money, and it issued large sums.

RHODE ISLAND.*

Rhode Island, the smallest state, as regards its territory, in the Union, lies between 41° 22′ and 42° 3′ north latitude, and 71° 6′ and 71° 38′ west longitude from Greenwich, and is bounded north and east by Massachusetts; south by the Atlantic; and west by Connecticut. Its superficial area is 1,340 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The surface of this state is generally level, except in the northwest part, where it is rocky and hilly. There are many hills, however, as Mount Hope, in Bristol, Hopkins' Hill, in West Greenwich, and Woonsocket Hill, in Smithfield. The soil on the continental part is tolerably fertile, though thin and lean, and requires much labor to be tilled. But the lands near Narraganset bay, as well as those on the islands, have great fertility, and are in a high state of cultivation. The soil of this state is generally regarded as better adapted to grazing than tillage.

Rivers and Bays.—The principal rivers are the Pawtucket or Blackstone, Providence, Pawtuxet, Wood, and Pawcatuck. Narraganset is the only bay worthy of note, and nearly divides the state in two.

Islands.—Besides the isle from which this state takes its name, Block, Canonicut, Prudence, Patience, Hope, Dyer's, and Hog islands, are included within its territory.

Climate.—The climate is proverbially healthy; and on the islands, where the sea breezes have the effect, not only to mitigate the heat in summer, but to moderate the winter's cold, it is more temperate than in any of the other New England states. Newport has long been celebrated as a delightful summer residence, and is much resorted to by people from the South.

Cities and Chief Towns.—The city of Providence and Newport are the seats of government. The other populous towns are, Bristol, Cumberland, Foster, Gloucester, Johnson, North Providence, North Kingston, Scituate, Smithfield, South Kingston, Tiverton, Warren, and Warwick.

Productive Resources.—The principal products are horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, eggs, butter, cheese, wool, hemp, flax, hay, lumber, wheat, rye, barley, oats, potatoes, and Indian corn. Anthracite coal is found and wrought to a small extent in this state.

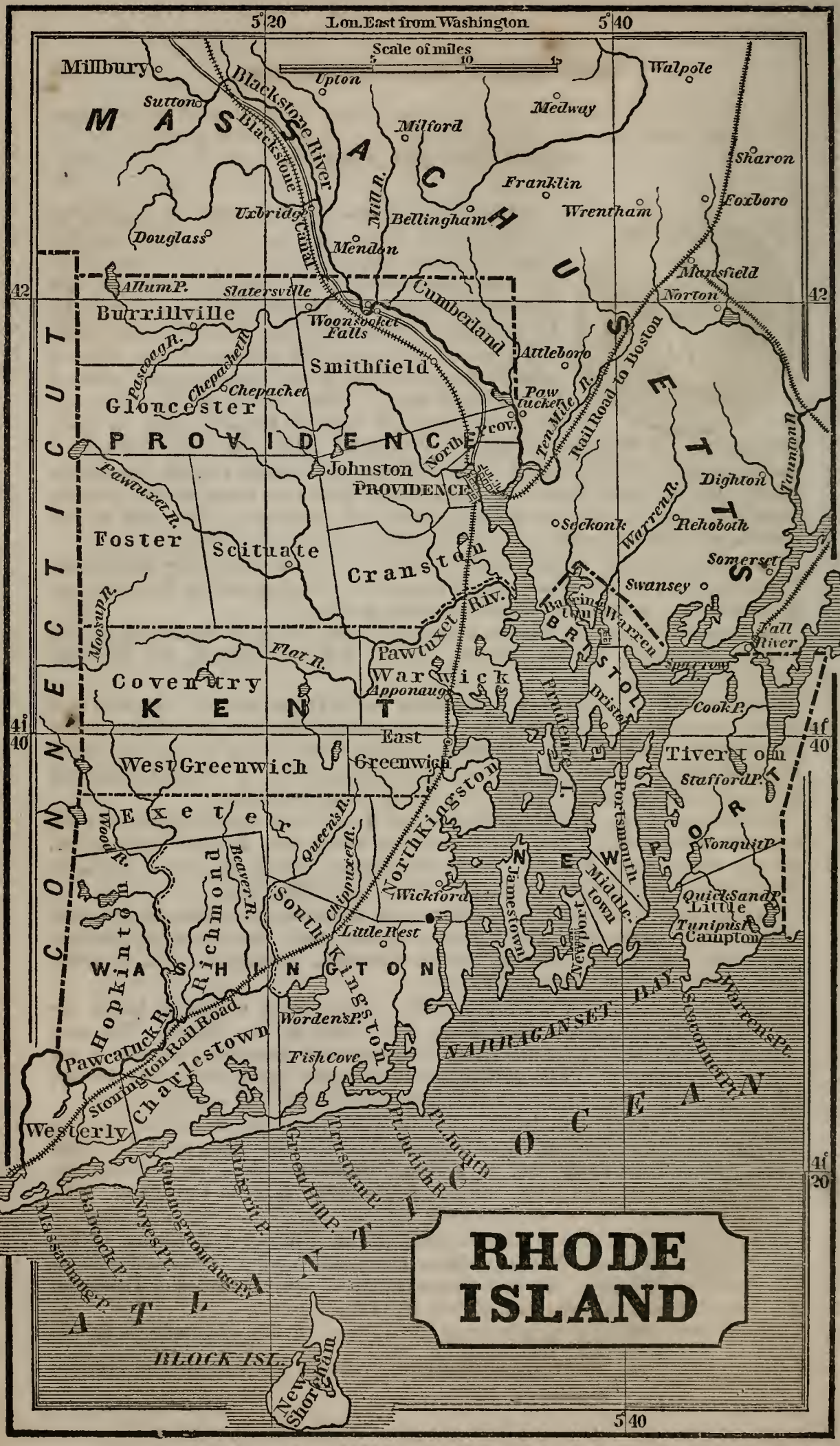
Manufactures.—A greater proportion of the people of Rhode Island are employed in manufacturing than in any other state of the Union. The state abounds in excellent water-power, affording sites for manufactories, which are extensively improved. The principal manufactures are woollen and cotton; but it has several furnaces, tanneries, paper-mills, and other establishments.

Railroads and Canals.—The railroads are principally connecting links in the great line of travel from New England to the South. The three principal roads extend from Providence to Boston, Worcester, Mass,, and Stonington, Conn., respectively, and have an aggregate length of about 150 miles. The Blackstone canal, from Providence to Worcester, lies partly within this state.

Commerce.—The direct foreign commerce of Rhode Island (owing to the greater eligibility of the ports of neighboring states) is small, compared with its population and industry. Its exports and imports in 1851 amounted to $550,000. Shipping owned in the state amounts to about 28,000 tons.

Education.—Brown university, at Providence, is the only college in the

* So called from its island of the same name, which was supposed to bear a resemblance to the isle of Rhodes, in the Mediterranean.



RHODE ISLAND

state. There is an atheneum also at Providence, and academies and common schools are numerous. Provision is also made for the insane and blind.

Population.—In 1790, 69,110; in 1800, 69,122; in 1810, 77,031; in 1820, 83,059; in 1830, 97,199; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows :—

Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.
Bristol	8,514	6,476	Newport	20,007	16,874	Washington	16,430	14,324
Kent	15,068	13,083	Providence	87,525	58,073			
						Total	147,544	108,830

Number of slaves in 1790, 952; in 1800, 381; in 1810, 103; in 1820, 48; in 1830, 17; in 1840, 5.

Government.—The legislative power is vested in a senate, and house of representatives; and the executive power in a governor, and lieutenant-governor; all chosen annually by the people, on the first Wednesday of April. The judicial powers are vested in a supreme court, consisting of a chief-justice and three associates, who hold their offices at the discretion of the legislature; and in a court of common pleas for each county, consisting of a justice of the supreme court and two associates. The right of suffrage is vested in all male native citizens, who have resided in the state two years, and in the town where they propose to vote six months; who have been registered seven days in the town-clerk's office; have paid a tax, or done military duty, within the preceding year; and in all other male citizens (naturalized foreigners) who, in addition to the preceding qualifications, possess real estate in the town or city where offering to vote worth $134 over all incumbrances, or which rents for $7 per annum.

History.—The first permanent settlement by Europeans, within the present limits of Rhode Island, was made at Providence, in 1636, by Rev. Roger Williams, who had been banished from the Massachusetts colony for his peculiar religious opinions. This settlement was called the "Providence Plantation." The next settlement was made at Portsmouth, in the northern part of Rhode Island, in 1638, which, the year following, received the name of the "Rhode Island Plantation." In 1643, when the four colonies of Massachusetts entered into articles of confederation, under the title of the "United Colonies of New England," under the pretence that the Providence and Rhode Island plantations had no charter, and that their territory was claimed by Plymouth and Massachusetts, they were excluded from the confederacy. The year following, Roger Williams obtained a free charter from the British parliament, and incorporated the two plantations under one government, which continued in force till 1663, when a new charter was granted by Charles II. The latter is the venerable charter under which the people lived and prospered, until its constitution was amended, in 1842. The first general assembly was held at Portsmouth, in 1647, when the executive power was confided to a president and four assistants. The constitution of the United States was not adopted in Rhode Island until 1790, after it had received the assent of all the other states.

PRESIDENTS UNDER THE FIRST CHARTER.

John Coggeshall....1647	John Smith....1649	Roger Williams....1655	William Brenton....1660
Jeremiah Clarke....1648	Nicholas Easton....1650	Benedict Arnold....1657	Benedict Arnold....1662

GOVERNORS UNDER THE SECOND CHARTER.

Benedict Arnold....1663	Henry Bull....1685	William Wanton....1732	William Greene....1757
William Brenton....1666	Walter Clarke....1686	John Wanton....1734	Stephen Hopkins....1758
Benedict Arnold....1659	Sir Edmund Andros.1686	Richard Ward....1741	Samuel Ward....1762
Nicholas Easton....1672	Henry Bull....1689	William Greene....1743	Stephen Hopkins....1763
William Coddington.1674	John Easton....1690	Gideon Wanton....1745	Samuel Ward....1765
Walter Clarke....1676	Caleb Carr....1695	William Greene....1746	Stephen Hopkins....1767
Benedict Arnold....1677	Walter Clarke....1696	Gideon Wanton....1747	Josias Lyndon....1768
John Cranston....1679	Samuel Cranston....1698	William Greene....1748	Joseph Wanton....1769
Peleg Sandford....1680	Joseph Jenckes....1727	Stephen Hopkins....1755	Nicholas Cooke....1775
William Coddington.1683			

GOVERNORS OF THE STATE.

Nicholas Cooke....1776	James Fenner....1807	John B. Francis....1833	Elisha Harris....1847
William Greene....1778	William Jones....1811	William Sprague....1838	Henry B. Anthony...1850
John Collins....1786	Nehemiah R. Knight.1817	S. W. King....1839	Philip Allen....1851
Arthur Fenner....1789	William C. Gibbs....1821	James Fenner....1843	
Henry Smith....1805	James Fenner....1821	Charles Jackson....1845	
Isaac Wilborn, L. G..1806	Lemuel H. Arnold...1831	Byron Dimon....1846	

CONNECTICUT.

Connecticut, so called from its principal river, lies between 41° and 42° north latitude, and 71° 20′ and 73° 15′ west longitude from Greenwich, and is bounded north by Massachusetts; east by Rhode Island; south by Long Island sound; and west by New York, containing 4,674 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The surface is uneven, and greatly diversified by hills and valleys. The soil is generally fertile, particularly so in Fairfield county, and the alluvial meadows in the valley of the Connecticut are uncommonly fine, and well adapted for tillage; but a large portion of the state is better suited to the purposes of grazing.

Mountains.—Strictly speaking, there are three mountain ranges in this state; one running a few miles east of the Connecticut, as far south as Chatham, where it is cut off by that river, and reappears again on the westerly side, and terminates at East Haven. Another range, which extends from Mount Tom, in Massachusetts, runs through the whole state, on the westerly side of the Connecticut, and terminates at New Haven, in a bold bluff called East Rock. A third range, still further west, extends from the Green mountains, in Vermont, across the state to New Haven, and terminates in a similar bluff called West Rock. The Blue hills, in Southington, belonging to this range, are the most elevated land in the state, being at least 1,000 feet in height. At the westward of Hartford is Talcott mountain, belonging also to this range.

Rivers, Bays, Harbors, &c.—The principal rivers are, the Connecticut, which is 400 miles long, and navigable for large boats to Hartford, while small vessels ascend it for 300 miles; the Housatonic, Thames, Farmington, Naugatuck, and the Quinnebaug. The shores of Connecticut are penetrated by numerous bays and creeks, which afford many safe harbors for small vessels. The three best harbors in the state are those of New London, Bridgeport, and New Haven.

Climate.—The climate is generally healthy, though subject to sudden changes of temperature, and extreme degrees of heat and cold. In winter, the northwest winds are piercing and keen, while those which blow from the south are more mild. Near the coast the weather is particularly variable, usually changing with the wind, as it blows from the land or the sea. In the western and northerly parts of the state, the temperature is more uniform and mild.

Cities and Chief Towns.—The cities of Hartford and New Haven are the seats of government. New London, Norwich, Bridgeport, and Middletown, are cities. Other towns are, Ashford, Berlin, Bristol, Canaan, Chatham, Colchester, Coventry, Cromwell, Danbury, Derby, East Hartford, East Windsor, Enfield, East Haddam, Fairfield, Farmington, Greenwich, Glastonbury, Granby, Guilford, Griswold, Groton, Haddam, Killingly, Litchfield, Lyme, Milford, Mansfield, New Canaan, Newtown, Norwalk, North Stonington, Plymouth, Plainfield, Ridgefield, Stamford, Suffield, Salisbury, Sharon, Saybrook, Stafford, Stonington, Thompson, Weston, Wilton, Wethersfield, Windsor, Wallingford, Waterbury, Waterford, Windham, and Woodstock.

Productive Resources.—Among the staple products may be enumerated, horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, eggs, fish, beef, pork, milk, butter, cheese, silk, wool, tobacco, hemp, flax, hay, straw, wheat, rye, barley, oats, buckwheat, Indian corn, potatoes, garden vegetables, fruits, cider, and wine. Iron ore, of superior quality, is found in Salisbury and Kent, that of the former being particularly adapted for the manufacture of wire. At Stafford, a

CONNECTICUT
73 Lon. West from Greenwich
72
42
41
4
5
Lon. E. from Washington
MASSACHUSETTS
NEW YORK
RHODE ISLAND
LONG ISLAND
LITCHFIELD
HARTFORD
TOLLAND
WINDHAM
MIDDLESEX
NEW LONDON
NEW HAVEN
FAIRFIELD
Connecticut River
Connecticut R.
Housatonic R.
Farmington R.
Naugatuck R.
Quinebaug R.
Sheetucket R.
Thames R.
Fishers I.
Long I.
Greenport
Scale of miles
10
20
30
Salisbury
Norfolk
Colebrook
Canaan
Winchester
Sharon
Cornwall
Goshen
Torrington
Litchfield
Warren
Kent
Washington
New Milford
Sherman
Woodbury
Middlebury
Southbury
Oxford
Brookfield
Newtown
Danbury
Botsford
Monroe
Stepney
Reading
Ridgefield
Weston
Trumbull
Bedford
Wilton
New Canaan
Norwalk
Stamford
Greenwich
Shippan Pt.
Norwalk R.
Farms Pt.
Bridgeport
Fairfield
Bridgeport Harbor
Stratford
Milford
Milford Har.
Stratford Pt.
Hartland
Barkhamstead
Simsbury
Canton
New Hartford
Avon
Burlington
Harwinton
Farmington
Bristol
Plymouth
Watertown
Waterbury
Cheshire
Naugatuck
Humphreyville
Hamden
Woodbridge
NEW HAVEN
Derby
Orange
Suffield
Granby
Windsor Locks
Bloomfield
HARTFORD
E. Hartford
Wethersfield
New Britain
Berlin
Southington
Meriden
Wallingford
Durham
North Haven
Guilford
Branford
Madison
Sachems Head
Branford Har.
New Haven Har.
Enfield
Warehouse Pt.
East Windsor
Glastenbury
Chatham
Middletown
Haddam
East Haddam
Chester
Killingworth
Saybrook
Westbrook
Lyme
Hamburg
Salem
Colchester
E. Hampton
Hebron
Columbia
Bolton
Coventry
Vernon
Tolland
Willington
Ellington
Somers
Stafford
Union
Ashford
Mansfield
Windham
Lebanon
Franklin
Bozrah
Norwich
Montville
Waterford
New London
Groton
Stonington
N. Stonington
Preston
Griswold
Jewetts City
Plainfield
Brooklyn
Killingly
Pomfret
Woodstock
Thompson
PROVIDENCE
E. Greenwich
Pt. Judith
Naves Pt.

bog iron ore is found, from which excellent castings and hollow ware are made. Lead and copper mines exist in different parts of the state, but in general they have not been worked to much extent. A lead mine, near Middletown, containing silver, has recently been re-oponed with success. At Simsbury there is also a mine of copper. In Portland, and Haddam, a reddish-brown freestone is quarried, which is easily wrought, and is highly esteemed in modern architecture, wherever it can economically be obtained. Fine variegated marble is found at Milford, resembling verd-antique.

Manufactures.—A large proportion of the people of Connecticut are engaged in manufactures, more particularly those of cotton and woollens; also, iron, hats, paper, leather, tinware, buttons, cutlery, carriages, ship-building, &c.

Railroads and Canals.—Connecticut has over 600 miles of railroad in operation, and others projected, which will undoubtedly be carried through at an early day. The only canals in the state now in operation are those which have been constructed to facilitate navigation on the Connecticut river.

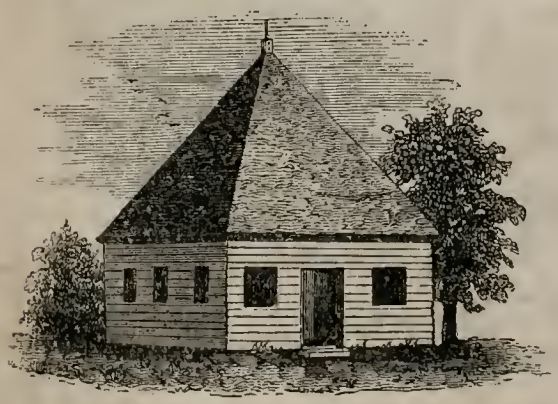
Commerce.—The commerce of Connecticut is mostly with the southern states and the West Indies. The imports and exports of 1851 amounted to $775,000, one half of which entered and cleared at New Haven, and one fourth at New London. The shipping owned within the state amounts to about 120,000 tons. The foreign commerce of Connecticut has decreased, owing to the facilities afforded by railroad communication for shipping at New York and Boston.

Education.—There are three colleges in Connecticut; Yale college, at New Haven, one of the most flourishing in the Union; Trinity college, at Hartford; and the Wesleyan university, at Middletown. There are in the state 150 academies, and over 1,700 common schools. Connecticut has a large school fund, amounting to about $2,000,000. The asylum for the deaf and dumb, at Hartford, is the oldest and most respectable institution of the kind in the United States.

Population.—In 1790, 237,946; in 1800, 251,002; in 1810, 261,942; in 1820, 275,248; in 1830, 297,711; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows:—

Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.
Fairfield	59,775	49,917	Middlesex	30,680	24,879	Tolland	20,091	17,980
Hartford	69,966	55,629	New Haven	62,126	48,619	Windham	31,079	28,080
Litchfield	45,253	40,448	New London	51,821	44,463			
						Total	370,791	310.015

Number of slaves in 1790, 2,759; in 1800, 951; in 1810, 310; in 1820, 97; in 1830, 25, who were not emancipated, on account of advanced age or infirmities.



First Church built in Connecticut.

History.—Connecticut comprised a part of the territory of the Plymouth colony, and was granted to the earl of Warwick, in 1630, extending westward from the Atlantic to the "South Sea." The first permanent settlement was made in 1633, by English emigrants from Massachusetts Bay, who located at Windsor, Hartford* and Wethersfield. In 1635, another puritan colony was also established, at the mouth of the Connecticut, called "Saybrook," in honor of Lords Say and Brooke, to whom, in 1631, the earl of Warwick had conveyed his title. In 1638, a third puritan colony was formed at New Haven, and remained in force until 1665. In 1639, the inhabitants of Windsor, Hartford, and Wethers-

* The annexed cut represents the first meetinghouse for worship erected in Connecticut. It stood at Hartford, and was built about the year 1635. It stood 99 years, and was then taken down. Some of the timber is still in existence, a portion of it being used in the construction of the Centre Congregational church at Hartford

field formed a separate government for themselves, as one public state, or commonwealth, to which the Saybrook colony was annexed, by purchase, in 1644, and with which the New Haven colony united, under the royal charter, in 1665. In 1662, the royal charter of Connecticut was granted by Charles II., embracing the territory extending westward from Narraganset bay to the Pacific, embracing within its limits the New Haven colony, and most of the present state of Rhode Island. In 1687, Sir Edmund Andros came to Hartford with a body of troops, and, by royal authority, as governor-general of all New England, demanded a surrender of this charter, and a dissolution of the existing government. The Connecticut assembly being in session at the time, were not disposed to make the surrender; and while the subject was under discussion, the lights were extinguished, and the charter secretly conveyed away, and concealed in the cavity of a hollow oak-tree, which is still standing, and bears the name of the "Charter Oak." This charter formed the basis of the government until 1818, when the present constitution was adopted. Within this charter was embraced the "Connecticut Western Reserve," consisting of about 3,300,000 acres of land in the northeast part of Ohio, which, as a compromise, was ceded to the United States, in 1796. It was sold to the Connecticut Land Company," for $1,200,000, and was the foundation of the state school fund. The constitution of the United States was adopted in 1788. The motto of the state seal is, *Qui transtulit sustinet*—"He who brought us hither still preserves."

The Charter Oak, Hartford.

GOVERNMENT.—The government is vested in a governor, lieutenant-governor, senate, and house of representatives, all chosen annually by the people, on the first Monday in April. The senate consists of not less than 18, nor more than 24 members. The sessions of the legislature are held annually, alternately, at Hartford and New Haven. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court of errors, superior court, and such inferior courts as the legislature may establish. Judges are chosen by the legislature, and hold office during good behavior, or till seventy years of age. The right of suffrage is enjoyed by every white male citizen of the United States, who has resided in the town six months immediately preceding, and has a freehold of the yearly value of seven dollars, or shall have performed, or been excused from, military duty, or shall have paid a state tax, one year next preceding the election, and who is of good moral character.

COLONIAL GOVERNORS.

New Haven Colony.
Theophilus Eaton ...1639
Francis Newman....1658
William Leet.....1661

Connecticut Colony.
John Haynes.....1639
Edward Hopkins....1640
John Haynes.....1641
Edward Hopkins....1642
John Haynes.....1643
Edward Hopkins....1644
John Haynes.....1645
Edward Hopkins....1646
John Haynes.....1647
Edward Hopkins....1648
John Haynes.....1649
Edward Hopkins....1650
John Haynes.....1651
Edward Hopkins....1652
John Haynes.....1653
Edward Hopkins....1654
Thomas Wells.....1655
John Webster.....1656
John Winthrop.....1657
Thomas Wells.....1658
John Winthrop.....1659

GOVERNORS OF THE UNITED COLONIES.

John Winthrop.....1665
William Leet.....1676
Robert Treat.....1680
Sir Edmund Andros.1687
Robert Treat.....1689
John Winthrop.....1696
Gurdon Saltonstall..1707
Joseph Talcot.....1724
Jonathan Law.....1741
Roger Wolcott.....1751
Thomas Fitch.....1754
William Pitkin.....1766
Jonathan Trumbull..1769

GOVERNORS SINCE THE REVOLUTION.

Jonathan Trumbull..1776
Matthew Griswold...1784
Samuel Huntington..1785
Oliver Wolcott.....1796
Jonathan Trumbull..1798
John Treadwell.....1809
Roger Griswold.....1811
John Cotton Smith ..1813
Oliver Wolcott.....1817
Gideon Tomlinson...1827
John S. Peters.....1831
Henry W. Edwards.1833
Samuel W. Foote....1834
Henry W. Edwards..1835
Wm. W. Elsworth...1838
C. F. Cleveland.....1843
Roger S. Baldwin....1844
Isaac Tousey.....1846
Clark Bissell.....1847
Joseph Trumbull....1850
Thos. H. Seymour...1851

NEW YORK
CANADA WEST
CANADA EAST
LAKE ONTARIO
LAKE ERIE
PENNSYLVANIA
OHIO
VERMONT
N. HAMPSHIRE
MASSACHUSETTS
CONNECTICUT
RHODE I.
N. JERSEY
LONG ISLAND
L. SOUND
L. HURON
L. SIMCOE
R. St. Lawrence
Niagara Falls
Susquehanna R.
Delaware R.
Hudson R.
Allegany R.
Oswego R.
Black R.
Genesee R.
Seneca L.
Cayuga L.
Crooked L.
Owasco L.
Otsego L.
Oneida L.
Lake Champlain
L. George
Lake Pleasant
Mt. Marcy 5,306 ft.
Mt. Lyon
Keeseville
Port Kent
Elizabeth
Burlington
MONTPELIER
Middlebury
Haverhill
Rutland
Newport
CONCORD
Sandy Hill
Salem
Keene
Greenfield
Lancaster
Pittsfield
Worcester
Springfield
Sheffield
Litchfield
HARTFORD
Norwich
NEW HAVEN
Hudson
Catskill
Kinderhook
Troy
Schenectady
Albany
Johnstown
Amsterdam
Gloversville
Saratoga
Ballston Sp.
Schoharie
Cooperstown
Morrisville
Utica
Rome
Oneida
Camden
Oswego
Pulaski
Watertown
Sackets Harbor
Kingston
Canton
Ogdensburg
Malone
Plattsburg
St. Albans
Hyde Park
Port Hope
Windsor
Toronto
London
Sherbrooke
Victoria
Buffalo
Lockport
Niagara Falls
Rochester
Batavia
Albion
Geneseo
Warsaw
Mayville
Ellicottville
Jamestown
Chautauque
Dunkirk
Erie
Warren
Olean
Angelica
Independence
Smethport
Coudersport
Towanda
Athens
Montrose
Binghamton
Elmira
Ithaca
Cortland
Owego
Corning
Hammondsport
Penn Yan
Canandaigua
Lyons
Auburn
Syracuse
Onondaga
Oxford
Norwich
Delhi
Deposit
Harpersfield
Butternuts
Schoharie
Kingston
Poughkeepsie
Monticello
Newburg
Goshen
Middletown
Port Jervis
Carbondale
Wilkesbarre
Williamsport
Morristown
White Plains
Riverhead
Hempstead
Jamaica
Flushing
Brooklyn
Richmond Co.
Rockland Co.
Orange
Putnam
Westchester
Sing Sing
Clarkstown
Queens
Suffolk
Kings
Niagara
Orleans
Monroe
Wayne
Lewis
Jefferson
Oswego
Onondaga
Cayuga
Seneca
Ontario
Yates
Tompkins
Cortland
Chenango
Otsego
Schoharie
Albany
Rensselaer
Montgomery
Fulton
Hamilton
Warren
Essex
Clinton
Franklin
St. Lawrence
Madison
Herkimer
Washington
Chautauque
Cattaraugus
Allegany
Steuben
Chemung
Tioga
Broome
Delaware
Greene
Columbia
Dutchess
Ulster
Sullivan
Orange
Putnam
Rockland
Westchester
Lake Pleasant
Caldwell
Whitehall
Jerkimer
Utica
Rome
Oneida
Camden
Oswego
Pulaski
Watertown
Sackets Harbor
Kingston
Canton
Ogdensburg
Malone
Plattsburg
Port Hope
Windsor
Toronto
London
Sherbrooke
Victoria
Buffalo
Lockport
Niagara Falls
Rochester
Batavia
Albion
Geneseo
Warsaw
Mayville
Ellicottville
Jamestown
Chautauque
Dunkirk
Erie
Warren
Olean
Angelica
Independence
Smethport
Coudersport
Towanda
Athens
Montrose
Binghamton
Elmira
Ithaca
Cortland
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Madison
Herkimer
Washington
Chautauque
Cattaraugus
Allegany
Steuben
Chemung
Tioga
Broome
Delaware
Greene
Columbia
Dutchess
Ulster
Sullivan
Orange
Putnam
Rockland
Westchester
10 30 50 70 Miles
Lon. West from Washington
East from Washington

NEW YORK.

New York, the wealthiest and most populous state in the Union, is situated between 48° 30′ and 45° north latitude, and 71° 56′ and 79° 56′ west longitude from Greenwich, and is bounded north by Canada, which is separated in part by Lake Ontario and the river St. Lawrence; east by Vermont, Massachusetts, and Connecticut; south by the Atlantic, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania; and west by Pennsylvania, Lake Erie and the Niagara river; the two latter separating it, in part, from Canada West. It has a superficial area of about 46,000 square miles, or 30,000,000 acres.

Physical Aspect.—The natural features of this state are greatly diversified, but in general may be regarded as an elevated tract, with numerous indentations and depressions, which forms the basins of the lakes and the valleys of fertilizing streams. The surface of the eastern division is more varied in its character than the western. There are some level tracts, the principal of which embrace the prairies and larger plains of Long island; but the greater portion is mountainous and hilly. The central and western divisions are mostly level, or moderately undulating, except near the Pennsylvania line, where it becomes broken and hilly. The soil of this state is generally good, except on the more sterile parts of the Hudson highlands, and other mountainous tracts, and many parts are celebrated for their extraordinary fertility. The valleys of the Mohawk and the Genesee, in particular, have long been proverbial for their productiveness, and are regarded as inexhaustible in their yield. The extensive plains in the central part of Long island, heretofore used as woodlands, producing large quantities of fuel for the New York market, are now being converted into farms and gardens, and the soil, with a moderate outlay for amendments, is found to produce, when properly cultivated, as well as any other land on the island.

Mountains.—There are several ridges of mountains in this state, which are generally considered as extensions of the Allegany or Appalachian chain. Two of these cross the eastern division, one of which extends from New Jersey to West Point, forming the Hudson highlands; thence in a northerly direction to the Taghkannic mountains, constituting the dividing ridge between the Housatonic and Hudson rivers. The same range continues to Vermont, and is there known as the Green mountains. The other range, from New Jersey, terminates at the Shawangunk mountains, on the west side of the Hudson. Another range, still more prominent, also extends from New Jersey, as a continuation of the Kittatinny ridge, to the Kaatsbergs (Catskill), near the Hudson, whence it continues in a northwesterly direction, through the counties of Albany and Schoharie, forming the Helderberg; thence to the Little Falls, through Herkimer, where it is known by the name of Sacondaga mountain; thence along to the westward of Lake Champlain to the river St. Lawrence, forming the Adirondack mountains, Mount Marcy being the most lofty pinnacle of the range.

Rivers, Creeks, Lakes, and Bays.—The principal rivers are, the St. Lawrence, Niagara, Hudson, Delaware, Susquehannah, Genesee, Oswego, Oswegatchie, Black, St. Regis, Mohawk, Saranac, Salmon, Chenango, Tioga, Seneca, Canisteo, Allegany, Croton, Harlem, and East. The most noted creeks are, the Tonawanda, Ellicott, Eighteen-mile, Oak-Orchard, Oriskany, East and West Canada, Schoharie, Sacondaga, Rondout, and the Wall Kill. Lakes Erie, Ontario, and Champlain, lie partly in this state. The other chief lakes

NEW YORK
Boundaries
Rail Roads
HUDSON RIVER
EAST RIVER
PART OF BROOKLYN
NORTH
NAVY YARD
BATTERY
Castle Garden
To Jersey City
To Hoboken
Orphan Asylum
Distg. Reservoir
Bloomingdale Road
Madison Square
Union Place
Washington Square
Tompkins Square
Waverly Place
Stuyvesant
Broadway
Bowery
Park
Houston
Greenwich Lane
Fourteenth
Thirteenth
Twelfth
Eleventh
Tenth
Ninth
Eighth
Seventh
Sixth
Fifth
Fourth
Third
Second
First
Fulton Ferry
Catharine Ferry
Peck Slip & Williamsburg Ferry
Wall St. Fy.
Corlears Hook

are George, Cayuga, Seneca, Oneida, Oswegatchie, Canandaigua, Chautauque, Skaneateles, Saratoga, and Crooked. The principal bays are, New York, Jamaica, Great South, Shinnecock, Gardiner's, Peconic, Oyster, and Flushing.

Cataracts.—New York is noted for a number of magnificent waterfalls. The falls of Niagara form the most stupendous cataract in the world. The water accumulated from the great upper lakes, forming a river about three quarters of a mile wide, and from forty to sixty feet deep, flows with a current of seven miles an hour. As it proceeds the river widens, and embosoms Grand and Navy islands, and again contracts to its former width. Below the islands are rapids, which extend a mile, to the precipice, in which space the river descends fifty-seven feet. Here Goat island divides the river into two channels. Over the precipice the river falls perpendicularly about 160 feet. Much the greater part of the water passes in the channel between Goat island and the Canada shore, and this fall is called, from its shape, the Horseshoe. Between Goat island and the small island in the eastern channel the stream is only eight or ten yards wide, forming a beautiful cascade. Between this small island and the American shore the sheet of water is broad, and the descent greater by a few feet than at the Horseshoe fall, but the stream is comparatively shallow. The best single view of the falls is from Table-Rock, on the Canada shore, and the best view of the rapids is from Goat island. Trenton falls, twelve miles north of Utica, are a succession of magnificent cascades. The Cohoes falls are formed by the passage of the Mohawk over a wall of rock, in one sheet, sixty-two feet high. At Rochester, the Genesee has a fall of ninety-six feet. At Ithaca, Fall creek has a descent of 438 feet in the space of a mile. The Cauterskill falls are a beautiful cascade, of great elevation, in the Highlands.

Mineral Springs.—The Saratoga and Ballston mineral springs are the resort of invalids at all seasons, and of the fashionable world during summer. The salt springs, near Syracuse, annually yield four million bushels of salt. The sulphur springs, at Sharon, in Schoharie county, and at Avon, in Livingston county, are efficacious in the treatment of chronic complaints.

Islands.—The chief islands, surrounded by tide water, are Long, Staten, Manhattan, Blackwell's, Gardiner's, Shelter, and Plum. Those of the inland waters are, Grand and Tonawanda islands, in the Niagara river, and several others in the St. Lawrence.

Climate.—The climate is more varied, perhaps, than in any other state. In the easterly section, below the Hudson highlands, the winters are comparatively mild, but changeable, and frequently are rendered disagreeable by the ocean winds. In the northeastern and central divisions they are more uniform, but severe. In the western division they are also mild, and are subject to less variation than either of the other divisions, except near the lakes, where they are often rendered unpleasant by tempestuous winds. The extremes of temperature near the city of New York vary from 4° below zero Fahrenheit to 90° above; at Albany, from 16° below to 93° above; at Canandaigua, from 8° below to 87° above; and at Buffalo, from zero to 80° above. The climate of this state is generally regarded as healthy, with the exception of a few months in summer and autumn, in the vicinity of stagnant marshes and sluggish streams. Here, as in most other parts of the country, situated in similar circumstances, intermittents and bilious disorders more or less prevail.

Cities and Chief Towns.—The city of Albany is the capital. New York,*

*New York, the great commercial metropolis of the United States, and in population, commerce, and wealth, one of the first cities of the globe, is situated in latitude 40° 42′ 40″ north, and in longitude 74° 1′ 8″ west from Greenwich, and 3° 0′ 22″ east from Washington, 216 miles southwest of Boston, and 86 miles northeast of Philadelphia.

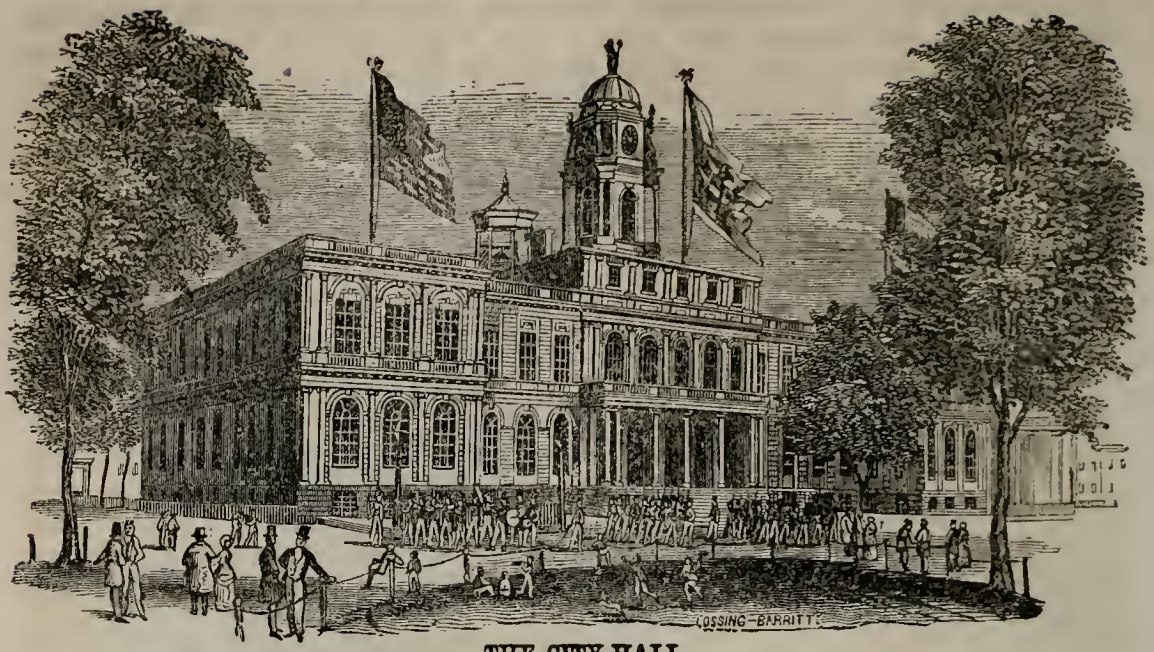
The city is located on Manhattan island, between Hudson and East rivers, which unite at its lowermost extremity, forming one of the most admirable harbors for beauty and convenience in the world. The island is 13½ miles long, bounded on the north by Harlem river, formerly Spuytendevil creek, and embraces an area of about 20 square miles. On the south part of this, the compact part of the city is built, extending about four miles along each river, and spreading northward by a rate of progress which will soon cover the whole

BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF NEW YORK,

SHOWING THE CITIES OF NEW YORK, BROOKLYN, AND WILLIAMSBURGH, WITH THE HARBOR AND RIVERS.

Brooklyn, Buffalo, Williamsburgh, Rochester, Troy, Syracuse, Utica, Hudson, Auburn, and Schenectady, are cities. The other populous towns are Attica, Avon, Amsterdam, Argyle, Arcadia, Berne, Bethlehem, Black Rock, Batavia, Binghamton, Brookfield, Boonville, Bainbridge, Barre, Butternuts, Brunswick,

island. Its admirable position for foreign commerce, with its noble bay, and its remarkable facilities of internal communication with every portion of the Union, have been the unfailing sources of its extraordinary growth and prosperity. Here the noble Hudson, after a course of more than 200 miles, through a rich and populous region, sweeps majestically along, bearing on its bosom the vast commerce of the Erie canal and the West, expands into the upper bay, and passes through the "Narrows" into the ocean. Here, too, on the opposite side, courses the strong tide of East river, which, winding between Long island and the main land, forms the rocky pass of "Hell-Gate," and several islands. This stream, which averages about three fourths of a mile in width, and thirty feet in depth, affords a passage for vessels of a large class into Long island sound and the Atlantic; while those engaged in foreign commerce, as well as in the southern coasting-trade, usually enter and leave the harbor through the Narrows, between Staten and Long islands. The best anchorage for these is at the wharves along the East river, which is more secure from ice than the Hudson. British packets, coasting vessels, and canal-boats generally, lie along the former river; some at Brooklyn, and the Atlantic dock, on the opposite bank; while the Hudson is thickly lined with steamboats and ships from England, France, Spain, Portugal, Holland, Sweden, and other foreign countries. On this river, also, at the foot of Canal street, is the wharf of the Collins' line of steamers, between Liverpool and New York. The Cunard steamers land at Jersey city, on the opposite side of the river. Other splendid lines run between the city and Southampton, Bremen, and Havre, in Europe, Charleston, Savannah, New Orleans, Havana, Chagres, Nicaragua, and Panama. Steamboats of different grades, from the magnificent floating palaces of the Hudson, to the lesser propeller and steam-ferry boats, are constantly leaving or approaching the city, and animate its waters with the most varied prospect of life and activity. For pleasant, salubrious position, and beauty of surrounding country, New York is as conspicuous as it is for commercial advantages. Entering the outer bay, from the Atlantic, the traveller sees on the left of the broad expanse of water, the blue hills of New Jersey, formerly known as the highlands of Navesink. Toward the north, the romantic heights of Staten island rise to view, and on the east, the shores of Long island. Following the Narrows, between the two islands, which are defended by strong fortifications, the upper or inner part of the bay opens an enchanting scene. Staten island recedes, and the shores of New Jersey reappear. Long island continues on the right, and after passing Governor's island, with its fortifications, the great city displays its forest of masts and spires, its domes and its houses, relieved by the green foliage of the "Battery," set, like an emerald, in some darker stone. The ground rises from the Battery, and from both rivers, by a gradual ascent, of which Broadway is the ridge, or summit. This surface, with the outline of the city, which rapidly widens from its southern point to a breadth of two miles, at Corlear's Hook, on the East river, gives an imposing effect, unequalled by almost any in the world. At the lower and ancient part of the city, the streets are somewhat irregular, but not unpleasant, being lined with rows of warehouses and stores of the most splendid and solid construction. Many of these are brick, some of freestone, and others of white marble. This is the business part of the city, and embraces comparatively few residences. Wall street is the principal theatre of financial and mercantile operations, and is a broad, straight avenue, leading from East river to Broadway. On either side of this are numerous splendid banking-houses, and other public buildings, among which is the Merchants' Exchange, of blue grenite, or sienite, 200 feet long, 171 feet wide, and 124 feet high to the top of the dome, with a portico supported by massive solid pillars. Within, the most remarkable apartment is the exchange, a rotunda, 80 feet in diameter, and 80 feet high, lighted from above by the dome, and resting upon eight Corinthian columns of Italian marble. The whole building is of fire-proof materials, and is a splendid ornament to the city. The customhouse, on the same street, is a beautiful structure of white marble, in Doric architecture, surrounded by rows of Corinthian columns, with a portico extending across the entire front on Wall street. It is 200 feet long, 90 feet wide, and 80 feet high, and contains numerous apartments for the different offices, the principal of which is of circular form, 80 feet in diameter, surrounded by columns, and lighted by a beautiful dome. This structure occupies the site of where once stood Federal Hall, where Washington was inaugurated first president of the United States, April 30, 1789. At the head of Wall street, fronting on Broadway, stands Trinity church, the most costly and magnificent structure of the kind in America. It is of light-brown freestone, in purely Gothic architecture, and is 192 feet deep, 84 feet wide, the walls 60 feet high, and the spire reaching 284 feet above the ground. From the battlements, at the base of the spire, appears a magnificent panorama of New York bay, its islands, New Jersey, and Long island, with Brooklyn, Williamsburgh, and other populous towns; while below the feet the giant city spreads east, west, north, and south, on each side of Broadway, which, for three miles, bisects it in nearly a straight direction. This splendid street, which is 80 feet wide, is lined with large and magnificent stores, warehouses, and hotels, built of white marble, freestone, and other durable materials. Below Trinity church, besides a number of fine hotels, there is the United States bonded warehouse. Proceeding northward, successively appear the Astor house, occupying an entire square, built of blue granite, the city-hall, the Irving house, opposite to which is Stuart's dry-goods palace, a massive structure of white marble, the Society library, hospital, St. Nicholas hotel, Academy of Design, Metropolitan hotel, and Grace church, of pure white marble, elaborately sculptured. At Tenth street, Broadway makes a small angle, and, after passing Union park, and Madison square, proceeds nearly northward to the upper end of the island. Among the public buildings in the lower part of the city is the city-hall, in the "Park," a pleasant triangular enclosure, of ten acres. This edifice is of white marble, except the back, which is of brown freestone. Its architecture is a combination of the Ionic, Corinthian, and Composite orders. It is 216 feet long, 105 feet deep, and 65 feet high. Upon the roof is a cupola, with a clock, illuminated at night, and an enormous bell, the powerful tones of which send the alarm of fire over an area of many miles. Within are well-furnished apartments for different offices of the city government; and in the second story the governor's room, which is decorated with portraits of the presidents, governors of the state, mayors of the city, and many American heroes and statesmen. In front of this edifice a splendid fountain rises, from the middle of a circular basin, surrounded by flowers and shrubs. The park also contains the new city-hall; the hall of records, and several other public buildings, for the accommodation of the courts, and city business. The halls of justice, often called, from its architecture, the "Egyptian Tombs," is a massive and large building, on Centre street, of light-colored granite, 253 feet long, and 200 feet wide. It contains the city prison, and other departments of justice. Columbia college is pleasantly situated westward of the park, fronting a beautiful green, the west side of which once overlooked the Hudson, but is now at a distance of about a fourth of a mile. This institution was founded under George II., in 1754, and has educated some of the most distinguished men of the country. The New York Postoffice occupies the old Middle Dutch church on Nassau, Cedar, and Liberty streets. Other prominent buildings worthy of note are Clinton hall, occupied by the Mercantile library; Odd-Fellows hall, an imposing structure of freestone; the New York university, an elegant white marble Gothic structure; the university medical college, on Fourteenth street; the New York college of physicians and surgeons, on Crosby street; the New York medical college; the general theological seminary of the protestant episcopal church; the Union theological seminary; the free academy; the Astor library; the institution for the blind; the deaf and dumb asylum; the New York orphan asylum, upon an attractive slope overlooking the Hudson; the colored orphan asylum; the asylum for friendless boys; the sailors' home; the colored



THE CITY-HALL.

Bath, Brookhaven, Benton, Coeymans, Chenango, Champlain, Chazey, Chatham, Claverack, Cortlandtville, Collins, Concord, Catskill, Coxsackie, Clayton, Cazenovia, Clarkson, Canajoharie, Camillus, Cornwall, Cherry Valley, Castle-

home, and many other noble, charitable institutions, which form a most enviable ornament of pride and honor for the metropolis of America.

New York is well furnished with educational and literary privileges, and manifests its high interest in mental culture, by the number and excellence of its libraries, schools, colleges, lectures, and journals, the latter of which are, in general, superior to those of any other city in the Union, for intrinsic merits, despatch, and for every requisite of newspaper literature.

The public grounds of New York are numerous, but scarcely commensurate with its greatness and wealth. The "Battery," at the south extremity, is an airy and delightful resort in summer, carpeted with greensward, shaded with large trees, and fanned by the breezes of the bay. At the southwest side, built up from the water, is Castle-Garden, once a fortification, but now used for public gatherings, and for the magnificent annual fairs of the American Institute. Its vast amphitheatre will contain 10,000 persons. Not far from the Battery, at the foot of Broadway, is the "Bowling-Green," a small elliptical enclosure, containing a fountain and lofty trees. Here, before the Revolution, stood a gilded leaden statue of George III., which was converted by the patriots into bullets, to be fired at the troops of the king, whom it represented. The park has been already noticed. Union square is a pleasant oval ground, adorned with flowers, grass, trees, and a fountain. Washington square, formerly a potter's field, lies westward of Broadway, and affords a pleasant promenade. Tompkins, Stuyvesant, and Madison squares, are the other public grounds, none of which are sufficiently ample for the wants of the city. St. John's, and Grammercy, are beautiful private parks.

It remains to notice a work which, in grandeur of design, and magnificent execution, is truly worthy of the commercial metropolis of America. The Croton water works are the most extensive and costly structure of the kind in the country, and probably in the world, if we except those at Marseilles, in France. A dam across Croton river, 40 miles north of the city-hall, creates an exhaustless and beautiful lake, of about 400 acres in area, five miles in circumference, and capable of containing 550,000,000 gallons of water. The squeduct extends from this point to Harlem river, without interruption, conveying the water through a conduit of masonwork, which has a descent of about one foot to a mile, is six feet three inches wide at the bottom, seven feet eight inches at the top, and eight feet five inches high. It passes Harlem river upon the "High bridge," which has been pronounced equal to the most magnificent structures, of a similar kind, in ancient Rome. Fourteen piers of solid masonry support arches, upon which rests the bridge, 1,450 feet long, and 114 feet above tide-water. After crossing the river, the aqueduct conveys the water to the receiving reservoir, 836 feet wide, 1,825 feet long, and containing 150,000,000 gallons. The water is separated by a partition of masonry, forming two divisions, which may be alternately full and empty, or both full at the same time. The whole area of the surface of the water is equal to 35 acres. From this basin the water is conveyed through iron pipes to the distributing reservoir, two miles southward, whence it is distributed through iron pipes under ground, cleanses the streets, and enters the houses, administering comfort, beauty, and health, to the city and its denizens. The area of the latter reservoir is equal to four acres; its capacity is 20,000,000 gallons. The water-works can supply 60,000,000 gallons daily; the average quantity is 30,000,000. The cost of the aqueduct and reservoirs was over $12,000,000.

The manufactures of New York, like its commerce, are more extensive than those of any other American city. Ship building and machinery are among the branches most largely carried on. Here are built the magnificent ocean steamers, packets, and steamboats, that are the glory of New York.

The principal streets are traversed in various directions by omnibus lines, connecting the important points. Ferries communicate with Hoboken, Jersey City, Staten island, Brooklyn, Williamsburgh, and Astoria.

The railroads diverging from New York are, the Harlem, and Hudson River, to Albany; the New York and New Haven; the Camden and Amboy; the New Jersey; the New Jersey Central; the Morris and Essex; the Paterson and Ramapo; the Erie; the Long Island; and the Philadelphia. Not all of these enter the city; many communicate by steamboats from different distances.

The population of the city in 1653 was 1,120; in 1661, 1,743; in 1675, 2,580; in 1696, 4,455; in 1730, 8,256; in 1756, 10,530; in 1774, 22,861; in 1786, 23,688; in 1790, 33,131; in 1800, 60,489; in 1810, 96,373; in 1820, 123,706; in 1825, 166,136; in 1830, 202,589; in 1835, 270,089; in 1840, 312,710; in 1845, 371,280; and in 1850, 515,394.

The contracted limits of Manhattan island has caused many populous places to spring up on all sides, whose

ton, Canandaigua, Canton, Cortlandt, Deerfield, Dunkirk, Duanesburg, Dryden, Elmira, Ellsburg, Eaton, Elbridge, Franklin, Fishkill, Frankfort, Flatbush, Florida, Fayette, Fort Ann, Greene, German Flats, Geneseo, Greece, Goshen, Greenbush, Glenville, Groton, Greenwich, Galen, Greenburg, Hanover, Harmony, Homer, Hamburg, Hamilton, Hempstead, Hoosick, Haverstraw, Howard, Huntington, Hector, Ithaca, Johnstown, Jamaica, Kinderhook, Kingston, Le Roy, Little Falls, Lyme, Lenox, Lockport, Lysander, Lansingburgh, Lisbon, Lansing, Lyons, Mentz, Middletown, Malone, Mount Morris, Morrisania, Mennon, Mohawk, Manlius, Minisink, Monroe, Montgomery, Mexico, Middlefield, Milton, Middlebury, Madrid, Mamakating, Marbletown, Mount Pleasant, Milo, New Berlin, Norwich, New Hartford, Newburgh, North Hempstead, Newtown, Nassau, Newfield, Ogdensburg, Oxford, Orleans, Onondaga, Oswego, Otsego, Oyster Bay, Owego, Plattsburgh, Portage, Pomfret, Poughkeepsie, Portland, Peru, Perry, Pompey, Phelps, Phillipstown, Pittstown, Potsdam, Palmyra, Queensbury, Rennselaerville, Roxbury, Royalton, Rome, Ridgway, Richland, Ramapo, Sparta, Sullivan, Salina, Skaneateles, Seneca, Scriba, Sand Lake, Schaghticoke, Schodack, Saratoga Springs, Schoharie, Seneca Falls, Southampton, Southold, Saugerties, Shawangunk, Sodus, Truxton, Trenton, Union, Virgil, Vernon, Verona, Van Buren, Volney, Westervliet, Westerloo, Westfield, Watertown, Westmoreland, Whitestown, Wall-Kill, Warwick, Waterloo, Warsaw, Whitehall, Westchester, and York.

Productive Resources.—The chief products are horses mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, eggs, beef, pork, fish, butter, cheese, silk, hay, wool, sugar, wine, hops, tobacco, flax, hemp, lumber, pot and pearl ashes, pitch, tar, turpentine, wheat, flour, rye, barley, oats, peas, beans, flax-seed, buckwheat, potatoes, Indian corn, apples, cider, pears, plums, peaches, grapes, and other fruits peculiar to the latitude. Of the mineral and fossil resources, iron, salt, marble, hydraulic cement, gypsum, super-phosphate of lime, flagstone, and lime, are the most important, all of which are extensively and profitably wrought.

Manufactures.—The manufactures of New York are extensive. Every section of the state abounds in excellent water-power, which is generally improved for manufactories, flour-mills, saw-mills, &c. Cotton, woollens, iron, paper, leather, glass, oil, silk, cutlery, hardware, firearms, carriages, &c., are the more important articles of manufacture.

Railroads and Canals.—New York has about 2,000 miles of railroads in successful operation. The most important are, the New York and Erie, extending from the Hudson river to Lake Erie, a distance of 450 miles; and the Hudson river, and the New York, Harlem, and Albany railroads, extending from New York city to Albany. From Albany railroads extend eastward to Boston, northward to Canada, and westward to Buffalo. From all these roads branches extend to various important points in the state. The New Haven connects New York city with the eastern states. The principal canal in New York is the Erie, extending from New York to Buffalo,* 364 miles. From the Erie lateral

inhabitants are mainly engaged in business in the metropolis, and which should be viewed as portions of the city, in considering its extent and population. To this class belongs the city of Brooklyn, which is beautifully situated opposite the southern part of New York, from which it is separated by East river. Its neat and quiet streets, the chasteness of its houses, the purity of its atmosphere, added to the facilities afforded by the numerous ferries for reaching the great metropolis, render it a desirable place of residence. Brooklyn is celebrated for the number and magnificence of its churches. The navy-yard is located at the northeastern part of the city, and Greenwood, the finest cemetery in the United States, at the southern part. The growth of the city has been almost unparalleled; the population in 1820 was 7,175; in 1830, 15,396; in 1840, 36,233; and in 1850, 97,838. Adjoining Brooklyn is the city of Williamsburgh, which has grown from a village of 5,094 inhabitants in 1840, to a city of 30 856 in 1850. On the west bank of the Hudson river lies Jersey City, with a population of over 16,000. It is the terminus of the railroads connecting New York with the south. To the north of it is the rural village of Hoboken, fast settling into a large town. Other places might be mentioned, as Morrisania, Flushing, Staten Island, &c., which are almost entirely dependent on New York for their prosperity.

* The commanding situation of Buffalo, as the gate through which the immense traffic of the West, borne on the bosom of the great lakes, passes to the east, makes it the most important inland city in the state. It is situated at the confluence of Buffalo creek with the east end of Lake Erie, and at the western terminus of the Erie canal, by which route it is 363 miles distant from Albany. It occupies a slope chiefly on the north side of the creek, which is here deep enough for vessels drawing eight feet of water. The streets are generally regular, the

BUFFALO
Boundaries
Rail Roads
NIAGARA RIVER
LAKE ERIE
BUFFALO HARBOR
Buffalo Cr.
United States Ft.
Public Square
Erie Canal Enlarged 130 ft. Water
Buffalo & Black Rock R.R.
Buffalo and Niagara Falls R.R.
Proposed Breakwater
Light House
Old Light House
Sea Wall
Proposed Ship Canal
Proposed Continuation
Proposed Sth. Chan.
Proposd Slip
Marine Railway
Dry Dock
Proposd Ohio Basin Area 10 Acres
Attica and Buffalo R.R.
Hydraulic Canal
1 mile fr. Court House
1 mile fr. Court House
1½ mile from Court House
Potters Field
Ferry St.
Abbott Road
Main & Hamburgh St. Canal
North
Genesee
Niagara Sq.
Rhode Island
Vermont
Connecticut
York
Jersey
Pennsylvania
Hudson
Maryland
Virginia
Carolina
Georgia
Hospital
Franklin Pl.
Slip
Erie
Scott
Seneca
Exchange
Carroll
Swan
Steuben
Louisiana
Hamburgh
Red Jacket
Van Rensselaer
Elizabeth
Caroline
St. Clair
Ohio
South
Chicago
Mississippi
Michigan
Missouri
Indiana
Illinois
Fulton
Perry
Hayward
Elk
Alabama
Miami
Mackinaw
Tennessee
Kentucky
Vincennes
Wabash
Vandalia
Sandusky
Allen
High
Carlton
Delaware
Tupper
Goodell
Virginia
Maple
Locust
Orange
Peach
Grape
Lemon
Mulberry
Cherry
Pratt
Kane
Camp
Sycamore
Batavia
Hickory
Spring
Mortimer
Mathew
Jefferson
Hollister
Clinton
Walnut
Spruce
Ash
Pine
William
Eagle
N. Division
Division
Folsom
Cedar
Oak
Elm
Ellicott
Washington
Main
Pearl
Franklin
Chippewa
Huron
Mohawk
Morgan
Court
Church
Delaware
Mechanic
Cottage
Palmer
Tenth
Eleventh
Twelfth
Ninth
Niagara
Seventh
Sixth
Fifth
Fourth
Third
Bristol
Emslie
Heacock
Hill
Peacock
Chicago
Smith
Jackson
Terrace
State Reservation
Johnson Pl.
Park Pl.
German
Lloyd
Prime
Water
Dead Cr.
Buffalo Cr.
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canals diverge north and south, traversing many important sections of country. The canals are, with a single exception, the property of the state. They have an aggregate length of about 1,000 miles, and have been principally built for the purpose of uniting the navigation of the lakes with the Hudson river.

Commerce.—The foreign commerce of New York is nearly equal to that of all the rest of the Union combined. Her lake and interior commerce is equally immense. In 1851, its imports and exports amounted to $225,000,000. The shipping owned within the state is over one million of tons, of which about one half is employed in the coasting trade, and on the lakes.

Education.—Among the literary institutions of New York are, Columbia Union, Hamilton, and Geneva colleges; and the New York, Madison, and Rochester universities. There are seven theological seminaries, and five medical schools. There are, also, about 250 academies, and 12,000 common schools in the state. The money appropriated for the support of common schools amounts to over a million of dollars annually.

Population.—In 1790, 340,120; in 1800, 586,756; in 1810, 959,949; in 1820, 1,372,812; in 1830, 1,918,608; in 1840 and 1850, in counties, as follows:—

Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.
Albany	93,279	68,593	Herkimer	38,244	37,477	Richmond	15,061	10,965
Allegany	37,808	40,975	Jefferson	68,153	60,984	Rockland	16,962	11,975
Broome	30,660	22,338	Kings	138,882	47,613	St. Lawrence	68,617	56,706
Cattaraugus	38,950	28,872	Lewis	24,564	17,830	Saratoga	45,646	40,553
Cayuga	55,458	50,338	Livingston	40,875	35,140	Schenectady	20,054	17,387
Chautauque	50,493	47,975	Madison	43,072	40,008	Schoharie	33,548	32,358
Chemung	28,821	20,732	Monroe	87,650	64,902	Seneca	25,441	24,874
Chenango	40,311	40,785	Montgomery	31,992	35,818	Suffolk	36,922	32,469
Clinton	40,047	28,157	New York	515,547	312,710	Steuben	63,771	46,138
Columbia	43,073	43,252	Niagara	42,276	31,132	Sullivan	25,088	15,629
Cortland	25,140	24,607	Oneida	99,566	85,310	Tioga	24,880	20,527
Delaware	39,834	35,396	Onondaga	85,890	67,911	Tompkins	38,746	37,948
Dutchess	58,992	52,398	Ontario	43,929	43,501	Ulster	59,384	45,822
Erie	100,993	62,465	Orange	57,145	50,739	Warren	17,199	13,422
Essex	31,148	23,634	Orleans	28,501	25,127	Washington	44,750	41,080
Franklin	25,102	16,518	Oswego	62,198	43,619	Wayne	44,953	42,057
Fulton	20,171	18,049	Otsego	48,638	49,628	Westchester	58,263	48,686
Genesee	28,488	59,587	Putnam	14,138	12,825	Wyoming	31,981	new co.
Greene	33,126	30,446	Queens	36,833	30,324	Yates	20,590	20,444
Hamilton	2,188	1,907	Rensselaer	73,363	60,295			
						Total	3,097,394	2,428,957

Number of slaves in 1790, 21,324; in 1800, 20,343; in 1810, 15,017; in 1820, 10,088; in 1830, 75; in 1840, 4.

Government.—The executive power is vested in a governor, and lieutenant-governor, who must be native-born citizens of the United States, and have resided in the state five years, and who are elected biennially; and the legislative power in a senate, of 32 members, elected biennially, and a house of assembly, of 128 members, elected annually, on the Tuesday succeeding the first Monday in November. The secretary of state, comptroller, treasurer, canal commissioners, attorney-general, engineer, and surveyor, are elected biennially by the people. Judges are elected by the people, and hold their office eight years. Every white male citizen, 21 years of age, who has resided in the state one year, and in the county where he offers his vote four months next preceding the election, enjoys the right of suffrage. Persons of color, who have resided

buildings substantial, and many of them imposing. The longest and broadest is Main street, the Broadway of Buffalo, on both sides of which, for more than two miles, extend lines of stores and other buildings. From the top of the elevation above the city appears a wide panorama of the lake, Black Rock basin, Niagara river, the Erie canal, and the surrounding country.

Buffalo is the offspring of the Erie canal, and ever since the completion of that stupendous work has continued to increase in population, wealth, and importance. A great chain of railroads binds Buffalo to New York, Boston, Albany, and the richest portion of the Empire state along the course of the Erie canal; and another traversing the valleys of the Susquehannah and Delaware, links it with New Jersey, New York city, and Philadelphia. By either of these routes, the passengers may reach Buffalo from New York, a distance of about 500 miles, in less than 20 hours. The Lake Shore railroad connects it with the vast network of railroads in the western states.

The harbor of Buffalo was formerly impeded by sands, which the winds and storms of Lake Erie deposited at its entrance. By the construction of a mole and pier, 1,500 feet long, this obstruction is removed, and vessels drawing eight feet of water now enter the creek. Here, in the winter season, a large number of vessels, steamboats, ships, schooners, and canal-boats, are congregated, and protected from ice and storms. Several hundred schooners, and a number of steamboats, navigate Lake Erie, from Buffalo, to the different ports on its shores. A large amount of capital is invested in manufactures.

The population of Buffalo, in 1810, was 1,508; in 1820, 2,095; in 1830, 8,653; in 1840, 18,213; in 1850, 42,261.

three years in the state, and have possessed a freehold of $250, one year previous to the election, are allowed the right of suffrage.

History.—In the year 1609, Henry Hudson, a navigator (who had previously made two voyages to the American continent, in the service of a company of London merchants), in the employ of the Dutch East India Company, while exploring the coasts of what are now Virginia, Delaware, and New Jersey, in search of a passage to the Pacific ocean, passed through the Narrows, entered the magnificent bay of New York, and discovered the mouth of the Manhattan (now Hudson) river. For ten days he continued his voyage cautiously up this river, confidently hoping it would open through to the great ocean, and it was not until he reached the head of tide-water, in fact until he was at the mouth of the Mohawk, that he relinquished this idea. He reached England in the autumn of that year. During the same year, Champlain, having fortified Quebec, passed through the lake which bears his name, and descended Lake George. The two navigators came very near meeting each other from different points, in the interior of New York. The Dutch commenced a regular trade with the Indians upon the Hudson in 1610, which was continued several years before a permanent settlement was commenced. They began a settlement at Albany in 1615, built a fort, and called the country upon the river *New Netherlands*. About the same time, a small settlement was made upon Manhattan island, but actual colonization did not take place until after 1621, when the Dutch West India Company was formed. In 1629, this company issued patroon privileges, for the purpose of encouraging settlements, and emigration rapidly increased. In 1633, the Dutch erected a fort on the Connecticut river, upon the present site of Hartford, but soon after abandoned the place. The Dutch at this time claimed Long island, yet the English commenced settlements upon the eastern end of it. They also claimed jurisdiction over the whole country bordering the Delaware and its bay, but there a colony of Swedes, which had been projected by and planted under the auspices of Gustavus Adolphus, disputed their authority, and they built a fort upon the island of Tinicum, in the Delaware, a few miles below Philadelphia. In 1643 '44, the Dutch waged a war against the neighboring Indian tribes upon Long island, and in New Jersey, who showed signs of disaffection, having been badly treated by the whites. The Indians were subdued, and dispersed. In 1647, Peter Stuyvesant, the most celebrated of the Dutch governors, arrived, and by order of the home government he set about reducing the Swedish colony to submission. This was accomplished in 1655, and *New Sweden*, upon the Delaware, became a part of the New Netherlands. In 1664, Charles II. granted the country between the Connecticut and the Delaware to his brother, the duke of York, who sent an armed force to take possession. This they accomplished in the autumn of that year, and the name of the settlement and province was changed to New York. When, in 1689, Governor Andros was imprisoned, the people of New York, under Leisler, took possession of the fort there. Leisler continued at the head of affairs until 1691, when he was arrested by Slaughter, a newly-appointed royal governor, and executed, on a charge of high treason. From the year 1700 until 1744, the province of New York was quiet, except the excitement produced by a pretended negro plot.* It was then that the "five years' war" with France took place, and northern New York became the theatre of hostilities. Hoosick and Schenectady were burnt. From 1755 to 1763 occurred the French and Indian war, and New York was the chief field of operations within the English colonies. Fort Oswego was captured by Montcalm, August 13, 1756, and the next year, on August 9, he stormed and took Fort William Henry, on Lake George. The English also made conquests of fort-

*The belief prevailed, though without any just grounds, that the negroes of New York had plotted the destruction of the town, and the massacre of the whites. Thirty negroes were burnt at the stake, eighteen hanged, and seventy were transported for life.

resses in the possession of the French; Ticonderoga, Frontenac, and Niagara. The Congress of the colonies, which the stamp-act gave birth to, was held in the city of New York, in 1765, and about the same time the association called the Sons of Liberty was organized in this province. In 1767, the powers of the colonial legislature were annulled by parliament, because the assembly refused to grant supplies to troops. In 1773, the people of New York, like those of Boston, successfully resisted the landing of tea. In 1775, after hearing of the battle of Lexington, a provincial congress was assembled, and thus the colony was governed until 1777, when a constitution was adopted. On August, 27, 1776, occurred the battle on Long island, between the Americans and British and Hessians. The city was evacuated by the Americans on the 23d of September. From that time until the close of the Revolution, this state was the scene of some of the most exciting and important events of the war. But our limits forbid a detail of them. On the 25th of November, 1783, the British evacuated New York. It was there that Washington, the first president of the United States, was inaugurated, on the 30th of April, 1789. New York ratified the Constitution of the United States July 26, 1788.

Dutch Governors.

Peter Menuit	1624
Wouter Von Twiller	1632
William Kieft	1638
Peter Stuyvesant	1647

English Governors

Richard Nicolls	1664
Francis Lovelace	1667
Sir Edmund Andros	1674
Anthony Brockholst	1681
Thomas Dongan	1683
Francis Nicholson	1688
Jacob Leisler, Lieut. Gov	1689
Henry Slaughter	1691
Richard Ingolsby, Lieut. Gov.	1691
Benjamin Fletcher	1692
Earl of Bellamont	1698
John Nanfan, Lieut. Gov	1701
Lord Cornbury	1702
Lord Lovelace	1708
Richard Ingolsby, Lieut. Gov.	1709
Gerardus Beekman, President	1710
General Hunter	1710
Peter Schuyler, President	1719
William Burnet	1720
John Montgomery	1720
Rip Van Dam, President	1731
William Crosby	1732
George Clark	1736
George Clinton	1743
James Delancy, Lieut. Gov.	1753
Danvers Osborn	1753
Sir Charles Hardy	1755
James Delancy, Lieut. Gov.	1757
Cadwallader Colden, Lt. Gov.	1760
Robert Moneton	1762
Cadwallader Colden, Lt. Gov.	1763
Henry Moore	1765
Earl of Dunmore	1770
William Tryon	1771
Provincial Congress	1775

State Governors.

George Clinton	1773
John Jay	1797
George Clinton	1801
Morgan Lewis	1804
Daniel D. Tompkins	1807
John Taylor, Lieut. Governor	1817
De Witt Clinton	1817
Joseph C. Yates	1822
De Witt Clinton	1822
Nathaniel Pitcher, Lieut. Gov.	1828
Martin Van Buren	1829
Enos T. Throop, Lieut. Gov.	1829
William L. Marcy	1833
William H. Seward	1839
William C. Bouck	1843
Silas Wright	1845
John Young	1847
Hamilton Fish	1849
Washington Hunt	1851
Horatio Seymour	1853

NEW JERSEY.*

New Jersey lies between 38° 57′ and 41° 22′ north latitude, and 73° 58′ and 75° 29′ west longitude from Greenwich, and is bounded north by New York; east by the Hudson river, Staten island sound, and the Atlantic; southeast by Delaware bay, which separates it from Delaware; and west by Delaware river, which separates it from Pennsylvania. It has a superficial area of 8,320 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—This state presents a great diversity of surface, as well as of soil. The northern portions are mountainous, interspersed with rich valleys, and extensive tracts, well adapted for grazing, and for the plough. An elevated range, called the "Palisades," commences near Hoboken, and extends along the Hudson for miles, forming a perpendicular wall of stone, which at some points is 500 feet high. The middle portions are less hilly than the northern, and much of the soil is fertile, and well tilled. The southern counties are principally composed

*So named after the island of Jersey, on the coast of France, of which Sir George Carteret, to whom the territory of New Jersey was conveyed, in 1664, was formerly governor.

NEW JERSEY
Scale of Miles
5 10 15 20
Carpenter Pt.
Montague
Deckertown
Coursen V.
Hamburg
Edenton
Munroe
Haverstraw
Ramapo
SUSSEX
LaFayette
Newton
Sparta
New Milford
Bloomingdale
Paramus
Piermont
Millford
Hudson River
41
Stroudsburg
Johnsonburg
Columbia
Hope
Richmond
Belvidere
Andover
Stanhope
Dover
Passaic R.
Parsippany
Pompton
Powerville
Paterson
Closter
Hackensack
Suckasunny
MORRIS
Spring T.
Morristown
Whippany
Orange
Mansfield
Meadham
Chatham
Newark
Brooklyn
Easton
Phillipsb'g
Clarksville
Baskingridge
Elizabeth T.
Clinton
Warren
Railway
Somerville
Centreville
Bound Brook
Perth Amboy
STATEN I.
Allentown
Flemington
Harlingen
New Brunswick
RARITAN BAY
Sandy H.
Ringoes
Amboy
Saxtonville
Middletown Pt.
Middletown
Old Shrews bury Inlet
Lambertville
Princeton
Kingston
Spotswood
Shrewsbury
Cranberry
Lawrenceville
Birmingham
High's T.
Freehold
Doylestown
Centreville
Trap
TRENTON
Georgia
Allentown
Howell
Norris T.
Bristol
Bordentown
Goshen
Columbus
Burlington
Sykesville
Squan Beach
Dover Furnace
40
Mt. Holly
Toms River
10
Philadelphia
Moores t.
Vincentown
Camden
Dover
Evesham
Mt. Misery
Williamsburg
Gloucester
Chewsl'g
Red Lyon
Woodbury
Atsion
Cedar Bridge
Barnegat In.
Swedesboro
GLOUCESTER
Barnegat
Mullica Hill
Causeways
Batsto
Woodstown
Glassboro
Pleasant Mills
Life
Tuckerton
Pittstown
Malaga
Hammonton
Egg Har. R.
SALEM
Salem
ATLANTIC
Canton
Mays Landing
New Inlet
Bridgeton
Millville
Absecombe
CUMBERLAND
Bargain T.
Absecum In.
Greenwich
Tuckahoe
Port Elizabeth
Newport
Egg Harbor In.
Corsons In.
Goshen
Townsend In.
Court
Heriord In.
Cold Spring
Cape May
Longitude East from Washington
3
Delaware River
Pennsylvania
Delaware Bay
Cape May
Atlantic Ocean
Long Beach Island
Barnegat Bay
Raritan Bay
Staten I.
Long Island
Hudson River
Passaic R.
Delaware River
Maurice R.

of a long range of level country, commencing near Sandy Hook, and lines the whole coast of the middle states. Much of this range is sandy, and nearly barren, producing little else than small oaks and yellow pine; in other cases, swamps of white cedar occur. In the southern section along the Atlantic and Delaware bay, there are extensive marshes, which are monthly inundated by the tides. A stratum of green-sand marl, in some places thirty feet thick, underlies the surface throughout the length of this tract, which has been extensively used as a fertilizer in reclaiming the land.

Mountains.—In the northwesterly part of the state there are two ranges, subordinate to the Alleganies, one called South mountain, and the other, Blue mountain, or Kittatinny ridge. The more prominent points of the former are designated by the names of Mosconetcong, Schooley's, Hamburg, Wawayanda, and Bear mountains. The other elevations worthy of note are Mine, Trowbridge, Second, and Ramapo mountains.

Rivers and Bays.—The principal rivers are the Hudson, and Delaware, its eastern and western boundaries; the Raritan, Passaic (the great falls of which, above Paterson, have a perpendicular descent of seventy feet), Hackensack, Egg Harbor, Great Egg Harbor, Shrewsbury, Toms, Maurice, Delaware, and Mosconetcong. The chief bays are the Delaware, Newark, New York, Raritan, Sandy Hook, Barnegat, Little and Great Egg Harbors, and Grassy.

Climate.—The climate along the seaboard, and in the valleys of the interior, may be regarded as mild, though the former is often rendered disagreeable by ocean winds. In the mountainous region, at the north, the winters are cold, and often severe. The range of temperature varies from a few degrees below zero to 90° above. The air is remarkably pure, and usually salubrious, except in summer and autumn, near marshes and streams.

Cities and Chief Towns.—Trenton is the seat of government. Jersey City, Newark, and Paterson, are cities. The other populous towns are, Amboy, Argyle, Belvidere, Bergen, Camden, Elizabethtown, Flemington, Franklin, Freehold, Hanover, Hopewell, Howell, Hackensack, Lebanon, Mount Holly, Morristown, Morris, Mansfield, New Brunswick, Nottingham, Newton, Orange, Princeton, Rahway, Somerville, Salem, Woodbury, Wantage, and Westfield.

Productive Resources.—The chief products are horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, eggs, butter, shad, oysters, cheese, fruit, cider, wine, flax-seed, wax, pitch, tar, resin, turpentine, silk, wool, lumber, hay, wheat, rye, barley, buckwheat, oats, potatoes, and Indian corn. Of the mineral and fossil resources of this state, iron and zinc are the most abundant, and their ores are extensively wrought. An extensive bed of phosphorite, a native phosphate of lime, has been opened in Morris county, which promises to add much to the agricultural wealth of the state.

Manufactures.—The manufactures of New Jersey are numerous, embracing almost every variety of goods. Cotton and woollen mills are established in many parts of the state; silk and linen goods are manufactured to a considerable extent; also machinery, hardware, railroad-cars, carriages, firearms, jewelry, glass, earthen-ware, fire-brick, &c. There are also extensive tanneries, and other manufactories of leather. Whole villages are employed in boot and shoe making.

Railroads and Canals.—The great lines of railroad between New York and Pennsylvania traverse this state. Branch roads are also constructed from the central roads to the more important towns; making, in the aggregate, about 200 miles of railway in the state. The Delaware and Raritan, 42 miles, and Morris, 102 miles long, are the most important canals in this state.

Commerce.—The foreign commerce of New Jersey is small, on account of its proximity to New York; its coasting trade, however, is considerable. The shipping owned within the states amounts to about 80,000 tons.

Education.—The principal literary institutions are, the college of New Jersey, at Princeton, founded in 1738, and Rutgers college, at New Brunswick, founded in 1770, to both of which are attached theological seminaries, and to the former a law-school; and Burlington college, founded in 1846. There are about 100 academies and 1,500 common schools in New Jersey.

Population.—In 1790, 184,139; in 1800, 211,949; in 1810, 249,555; in 1820, 277,575; in 1830, 320,823; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows:—

Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.
Atlantic	8,961	8,726	Gloucester	14,655	25,438	Morris	30,158	25,844
Bergen	14,725	13,223	Hudson	21,821	9,488	Ocean	10,032	
Burlington	43,203	32,831	Hunterdon	28,989	24,783	Salem	19,467	16,024
Camden	25,422	new co.	Mercer	27,992	21,502	Somerset	19,688	17,455
Cape May	6,433	5,324	Middlesex	28,635	21,893	Sussex	22,989	21,770
Cumberland	17,189	14,374	Monmouth	30,313	32,909	Warren	22,358	20,366
Essex	73,950	44,621	Passaic	22,575	16,734			
						Total	489,555	373,306

Number of slaves in 1790, 11,423; in 1800, 12,422; in 1810, 10,851; in 1820, 7,657; in 1830, 2,254; in 1840, 674; in 1850, 222.

Government.—The legislative power is vested in a senate, elected for three years, one third renewed each year, and a general assembly, chosen annually, on the second Tuesday of October; the executive power in a governor, elected by the people, once in three years, at the general election, and is ineligible for the next term. The judiciary power is vested in a court of errors and appeals, composed of the chancellor, supreme court, and six other judges; a court for trial of impeachments; a court of chancery; a supreme court of five judges, and courts of common pleas. The chancellor and supreme court judges hold their offices for seven years; the six judges of the court of errors and appeals for six years, one judge vacating his seat each year in rotation; and the judges of the courts of common pleas for five years. The latter are chosen by the legislature; the others receive their appointment from the governor. The right of suffrage is vested in every white male citizen, who shall have resided in the state one year, and in the county where he votes five months, paupers, idiots, insane persons, and criminals, excepted.

History.—The territory of the present state of New Jersey was formerly included, in part, in New Swedeland, which lay on the west side of the Delaware, as far up as Trenton falls, and was purchased of the Indians, and settled by the Swedes, in 1638. It also formed a part of the Dutch province of New Netherlands, and was included within the jurisdiction of Governor Stuyvesant, in 1655. The first permanent settlement within the present limits of this state was made at Bergen, in 1623, by the Danes. In 1664, Charles II., of England, having granted to his brother James, the duke of York, the whole territory from Connecticut river to the shores of the Delaware, the latter immediately compelled the Dutch and Swedes to surrender, and took possession of the province, with its subordinate settlements west of the river, except the present state of New Jersey, which he conveyed to Sir George Carteret, and Lord Berkeley, who were already proprietors of Carolina. In 1673, the Dutch regained all their former possessions, including New Jersey, but relinquished them to the English again, in 1674. After this event, the duke of York obtained a second charter, confirming the former grant, and restored to Berkeley and Carteret their former rights. Berkeley sold his share of the territory, which, two years afterward, fell into the hands of William Penn and two other Quakers, and the province was divided into "East Jersey" and "West Jersey." The former was governed by Carteret, and the latter by the quakers. In 1682, after the death of Carteret, East Jersey was sold to Penn, and eleven other individuals of the same order and faith, who were joined by twelve partners, and were known as the "twenty-four proprietors." The celebrated Robert Barclay was appointed governor for life. In 1688, the whole province was placed under the jurisdiction of Andros, who had already become royal governor over New

England and New York. From this time, up to the year 1702, the country remained in an unsettled condition; the people surrendered their powers of government to the crown, making New Jersey a royal province, and uniting it to New York. From this period, up to 1738, the province remained under the jurisdiction of New York, but had a distinct legislative assembly, and a separate government was instituted, which continued in force until the American Revolution. The state constitution was formed in 1776, and the constitution of the United States adopted in 1787. Motto of the seal, "Liberty and Independence."

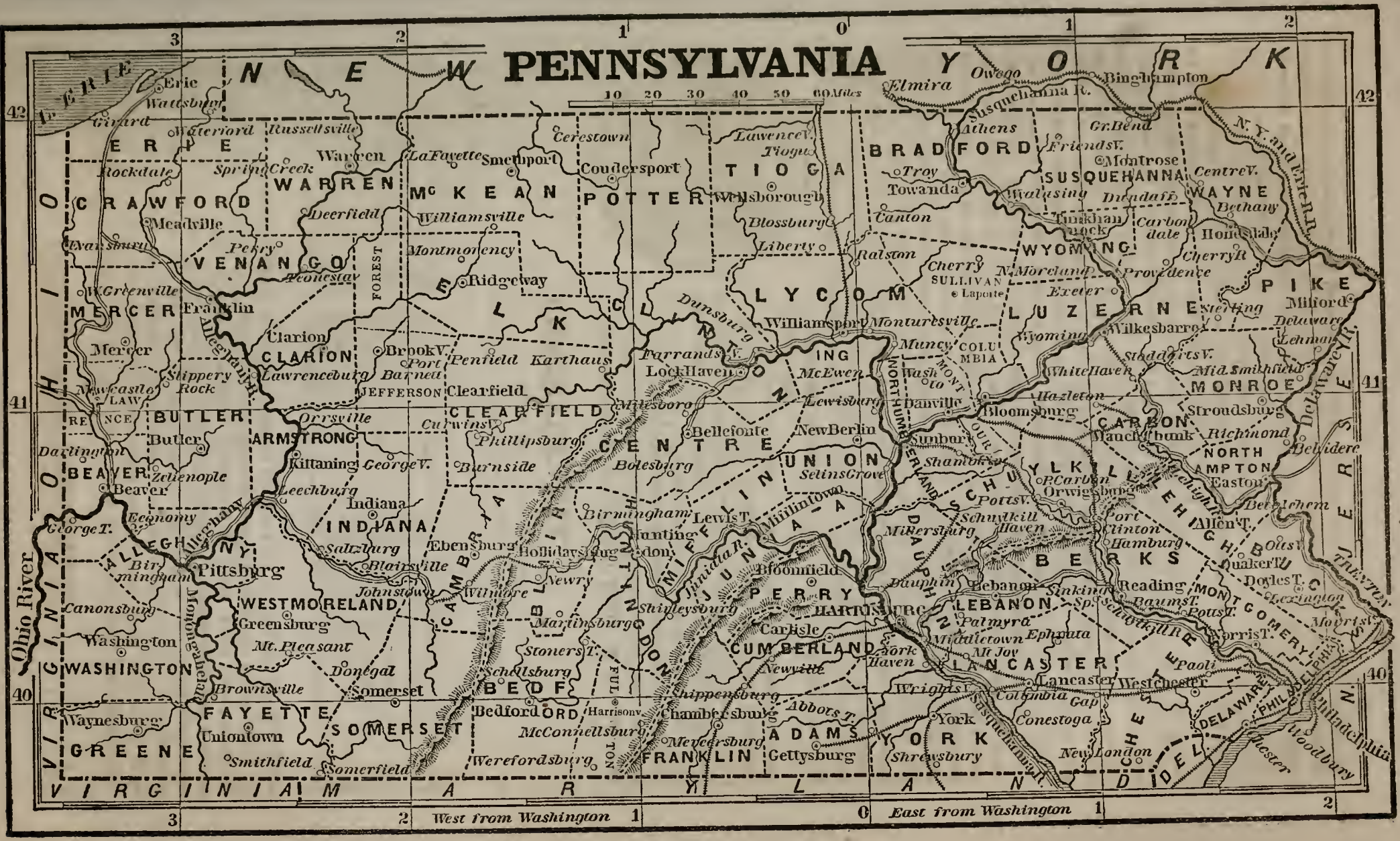
Governors under the King.		*Governors under the Constitution.*			
Lewis Morris	1738	William Livingston	1776	Isaac H. Williamson	1817
John Hamilton, President	1746	William Paterson	1791	Peter D. Vroom, jr	1829
John Reading, President	1746	Richard Howell	1794	Elias P. Seeley	1832
Jonathan Belcher	1747	Joseph Bloomfield	1801	Peter D. Vroom, jr	1833
John Reading, President	1757	John Lambert, Acting Gov	1802	Philemon Dickerson	1836
Francis Bernard	1758	Joseph Bloomfield	1803	William S. Pennington	1837
Thomas Boone	1760	Aaron Ogden	1812	Daniel Haines	1844
Josiah Hardy	1761	William S. Pennington	1813	Charles C Stratton	1845
Wm. Temple Franklin	1763	Mahlon Dickerson	1815	Daniel Haines	1848
				George F. Fort	1851

PENNSYLVANIA.

Pennsylvania, so called in honor of the father of its illustrious founder, lies between 74° 44′ and 80° 34′ west longitude from Greenwich, and 39° 43′ and 42° 17′ north latitude, and is bounded north by Lake Erie and New York; east by New York and New Jersey, from which it is separated by Delaware river; south by Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia; and west by Virginia and Ohio. Its superficial area is 46,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The surface of this state is greatly diversified by mountains, hills, and dales. It contains but few large tracts of level land, and these generally occur along the borders of streams. With one or two partial exceptions, it is composed of two great plains, declining from the dividing ridge of its waters. The eastern declivity, drained by the Delaware and Susquehannah, and their tributaries, gradually descends to the level of the tide; the western, in like manner, drains the numerous confluents of the Ohio. The southeastern counties may be regarded as undulating, rather than hilly, and are under a high state of cultivation, particularly along the Susquehannah. Most of the central part of the state is mountainous, often interspersed with high and sterile ridges, occurring in close succession, interlocking each other, and enclosing long and pointed valleys between. It is within this region, too, that the fertile valley of Wyoming occurs, surrounded by a lofty chain, known at different points by as many local names. Most of the country west of the Alleganies is hilly, with numerous irregular and abrupt elevations, not disposed in regular chains. In this part of the state, particularly along the streams, the soil is highly fertile; and between Allegany river and Lake Erie, as well as on the western border, the soil is good.

Mountains.—The structure and position of the mountains in this state have given it an aspect peculiar to itself, and constitute its most prominent features. South mountain extends from New Jersey, interrupted by the Delaware, below Easton, in a southwesterly direction across the state to Adams county, on the borders of Maryland. Next to this, the Blue mountain, or Kittatinny range, extends from the western part of New Jersey, also interrupted by the Delaware,


PENNSYLVANIA
NEW YORK
10 20 30 40 50 60 Miles
ERIE
CRAWFORD
WARREN
McKEAN
POTTER
TIOGA
BRADFORD
SUSQUEHANNA
WAYNE
PIKE
MERCER
VENANGO
FOREST
ELK
CLINTON
LYCOMING
SULLIVAN
WYOMING
LUZERNE
MONROE
CLARION
JEFFERSON
CLEARFIELD
CENTRE
UNION
SNYDER
NORTHUMBERLAND
MONTOUR
COLUMBIA
CARBON
BUTLER
ARMSTRONG
INDIANA
BEAVER
ALLEGHANY
WESTMORELAND
CAMBRIA
BLAIR
HUNTINGDON
MIFFLIN
JUNIATA
PERRY
DAUPHIN
SCHUYLKILL
LEHIGH
NORTHAMPTON
BERKS
LEBANON
HARRISBURG
CUMBERLAND
LANCASTER
WASHINGTON
FAYETTE
SOMERSET
BEDFORD
ADAMS
YORK
FRANKLIN
GREENE
MONTGOMERY
DELAWARE
CHESTER
Lake Erie
Ohio River
Allegheny R.
Monongahela R.
Juniata R.
Susquehanna R.
Delaware R.
N.Y. and Erie R.R.
Erie
Waterford
Russellville
Girard
Wattsburg
Warren
LaFayette
Smethport
Coudersport
Cerestown
Lawrenceville
Troy
Towanda
Athens
Gr.Bend
Friendsville
Montrose
Centreville
Elmira
Owego
Binghampton
Rockdale
Spring Creek
Meadville
Deerfield
Williamsville
Wellsborough
Blossburg
Canton
Liberty
Ralston
Tunkhannock
Carbondale
Honesdale
Bethany
Cherry R.
Providence
Exeter
Wilkesbarre
Wyoming
Stoddartsville
Milford
Delaware
Lehman
Mid. Smithfield
Whitehaven
Hazleton
Bloomsburg
Danville
Sunbury
Lewisburg
Muncy
McEwen
Williamsport
Montoursville
Dunsburg
Farrandsville
Lock Haven
Penfield
Karthaus
Renovo
Driftwood
Ridgeway
Mt. Jewett
Kane
Greenville
Mercer
Franklin
Clarion
Brookville
Port Barnett
Lawrenceburg
Slippery Rock
New Castle
Butler
Darlington
Zelienople
Beaver
Economy
Pittsburg
Birmingham
Saltzburg
Blairsville
Ebensburg
Hollidaysburg
Huntingdon
Birmingham
Lewistown
Millerstown
Millerstown
Bellefonte
Newberry
Bolesburg
Burnside
Curwinsville
Orrsville
Kittaning
Indiana
Leechburg
Johnstown
Wilmore
Newry
Martinsburg
Shirleysburg
Bloomfield
Carlisle
Mechanicsburg
Harrisburg
Dauphin
Middletown
Palmyra
Ephrata
Lebanon
Sinkings Sp.
Reading
Baumstown
Boyertown
Quakertown
Doylestown
Lexington
Morrisville
Trenton
Bristol
Philadelphia
Germantown
Norristown
Paoli
Lancaster
Columbia
Wrightsville
Susquehanna R.
Conestoga
Gap
Abbotstown
Chambersburg
Mercersburg
Gettysburg
Shrewsbury
New London
Oxford
Woodbury
Chester
Newville
Stoners Town
Schellsburg
Bedford
Harrisonville
McConnellsburg
Wereford
Somerfield
Smithfield
Somerset
Donegal
Mt. Pleasant
Greensburg
Canonsburg
Washington
Brownsville
Waynesburg
Uniontown
West from Washington
East from Washington
VIRGINIA
MARYLAND
DELAWARE

to Parnell's Knob, near the south border of this state. Next come Second, Sharp, and Broad mountains, the latter of which is an irregular elevation, with a broad and barren table-land at its top. Between the Kittatinny and Allegany ranges is what is called the Appalachian chain, which consists of elevated and nearly parallel ridges, in some instances twenty miles apart, and frequently divided by subordinate ridges. The great Allegany ridge extends nearly across the state, presenting on its southeasterly side an abrupt ascent, but a gentle descent on the northwesterly slope, consisting of an elevated and undulating table-land. Westward of this range are Laurel ridge, and Chestnut ridge, running parallel therewith.

Rivers and Lake.—The principal rivers are the Delaware, Schuylkill, Lehigh, Susquehannah, Juniata, Genesee, Allegany, Monongahela, Ohio, Clarion, and Youhioghany. Lake Erie bounds this state on the northwest.

Islands.—Tinicum island, in the Delaware, and Presque isle, on the south side of Lake Erie, are those most worthy of note.

Climate.—The climate, though generally healthy and temperate, is fluctuating and varied. The extremes of temperature are from 20° below zero to 98° Fahrenheit above. On both inclined plains, it is a rare occurrence that the rivers in winter are not more or less frozen, and rendered unnavigable. Receding to the more elevated tracts and high mountain valleys, summer is visited by occasional frosts, which, in some situations, appear in every month of the year. In all of the higher regions, abiding snows usually appear in December, and remain until March. Spring and autumn are usually delightful seasons in all parts of the state.

Cities and Chief Towns.—Harrisburg is the seat of government. Philadelphia* and Pittsburg are cities. The other populous towns are, Allegany,

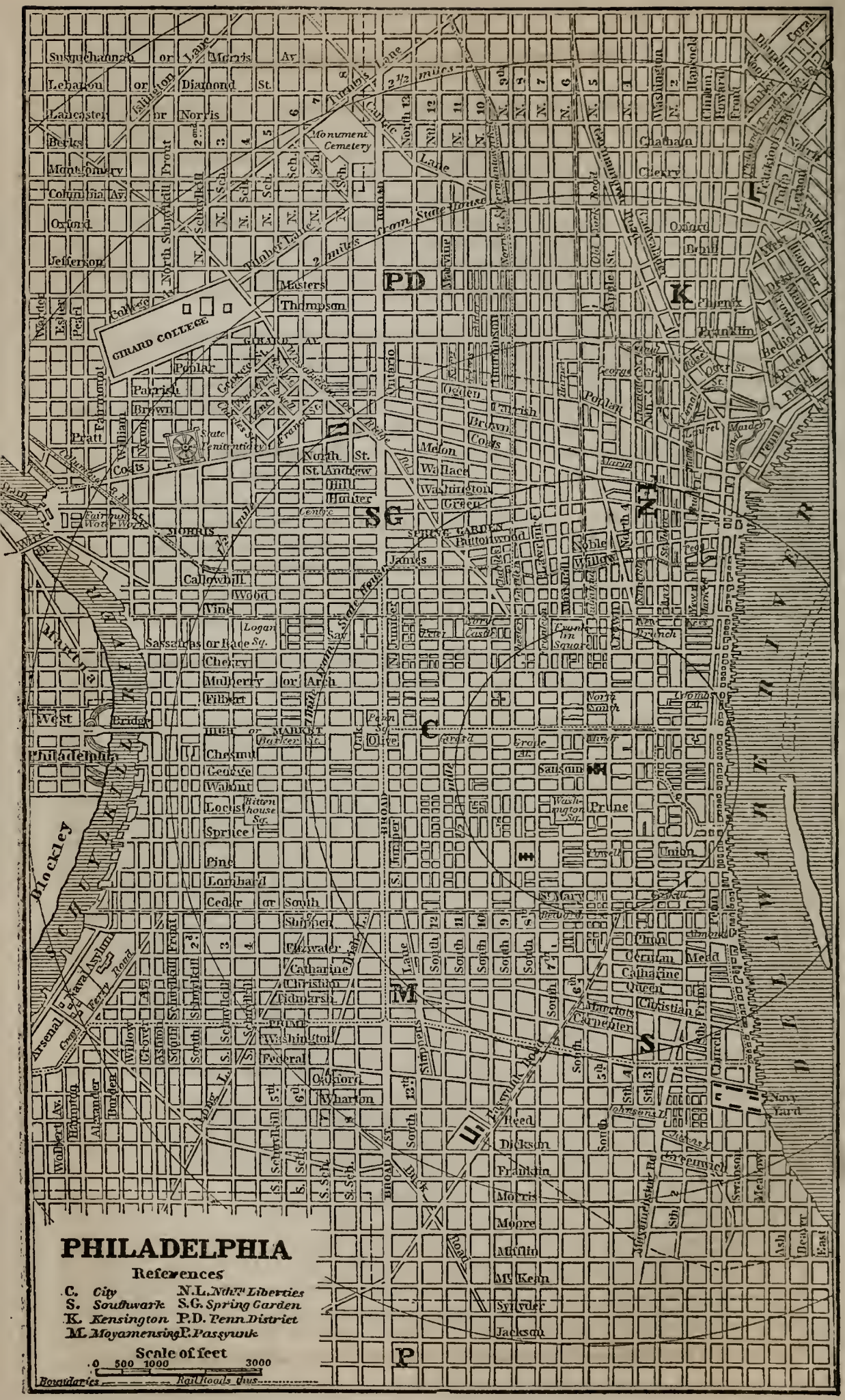
* Philadelphia, the first city of Pennsylvania, in population, wealth, and manufactures, and the second in the United States, is situated on a peninsula formed by the confluence of Delaware and Schuylkill rivers. The city was laid out with beautiful regularity in 1683, by its illustrious founder, William Penn, who gave it its name, signifying "brotherly love." Many of the noble trees which grew on the site are now commemorated by the names of the streets running east and west, as Chestnut, Walnut, Pine, &c., while those crossing them are designated by numerals. The ground on which Philadelphia is built is even, rising gently from each river, along which it extends for several miles. On the Delaware the scenery is monotonous; but the water being deeper than that of the other river, the commerce and business of the city tends to this side; while the Schuylkill affords pleasing landscapes, and agreeable places of residence. Many of the smaller vessels, sloops, and boats, here congregate, laden with coal and other products of the valley of the Schuylkill. This part of the city is now rapidly increasing in wealth and business. No feature of Philadelphia is more striking than the regularity and cleanness of its streets. The latter peculiarity is chiefly owing to the convenient grade, which allows the water to descend and find its way, through sewers and other channels, into the Delaware. The houses, also, are more remarkable for neatness and solidity, than for splendor and show. They are mostly of brick, adorned with steps and basements of white marble, which the neighboring quarries furnish in abundance, and of fine quality. Of this material a number of the public buildings are constructed, among which are the United States Marine hospital, the Pennsylvania bank, the Girard bank, the building formerly occupied by the United States Bank, and Girard College, which deserves more than a passing mention. A bequest of $2,000,000, with grounds beautifully situated, on an elevation near the city, was made, in 1831, by Stephen Girard, an eccentric, though wealthy citizen of Philadelphia, for the purpose of founding a college for orphans. With part of these funds has been erected one of the most magnificent structures in the United States. The college consists of five buildings. The main edifice in the centre is devoted to the education of pupils and students of various ages and acquirements; the other four, two on each side, are residences for the instructors and students. The whole is of richly-wrought white marble. The central structure is 218 feet long, and 160 feet wide, surrounded by 34 Corinthian columns, 55 feet high, and 6 feet in diameter. The interior is in a corresponding style of splendor. The four other buildings are each 125 feet long, and 52 feet wide.

Another building in Philadelphia, of less magnificence, probably excites greater interest. This is the old Statehouse, or Independence Hall, where the declaration of American independence was decreed and signed by the first continental Congress. The bell which announced to the anxious people the adoption of this great instrument is carefully preserved in the cupola. It bears the prophetic inscription, "Proclaim liberty throughout the land unto all the inhabitants thereof." These words were imprinted on the bell long before the use which was afterward made of it could have been known. In this building are, a statue of Washington, in wood, and many other relics of the Revolution.

Philadelphia contains a large number of important public buildings and institutions. Among them are, the Pennsylvania hospital, which owes its origin to Doctors Franklin and Bond: the Insane asylum, outside of the city; the almshouse, fronting Schuylkill river on its west side; institutions for the deaf and dumb, and for the blind, and several other charitable establishments. Beside these, there are the American Philosophical Society, founded in 1743, by the exertions of Doctor Franklin, and possessing a large and valuable library and cabinet, the Philadelphia library, also established under the auspices of Franklin; the Franklin Institute; the Academy of Natural Sciences; the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts; and numerous other flourishing associations for improvement in knowledge and art.

Another great structure is the United States mint, built of white marble, with two porticoes, resting on Ionic columns, one fronting Chestnut, the other Olive street. Here a vast amount of bullion, from California and other parts of the Union, is coined.

The markets of Philadelphia are among the most convenient, well-supplied, and well-conducted, in the coun-


PHILADELPHIA
References
C. City
S. Southwark
K. Kensington
M. Moyamensing
N.L. Nthn Liberties
S.G. Spring Garden
P.D. Penn District
P. Passyunk
Scale of feet
0 500 1000 3000
Boundaries
Railroads thus
GIRARD COLLEGE
State Penitentiary
Monument Cemetery
Fairmount Water Works
Navy Yard
Arsenal
Naval Asylum
Ferry Road
Delaware River
Schuylkill River
Susquehanna or Lane
Lebanon or Diamond St.
Lancaster or Norris
Berks
Montgomery
Columbia Av.
Oxford
Jefferson
Poplar
Parrish
Brown
Pratt
Fairmount
Callowhill
Wood
Vine
Sassafras or Race
Cherry
Mulberry or Arch
Filbert
Chesnut
George
Walnut
Locust
Spruce
Pine
Lombard
Cedar or South
Shippen
Catharine
Christian
Federal
Washington
Oxford
Wharton
Reed
Dickson
Franklin
Morris
Moore
Mifflin
Mt Kean
Snyder
Jackson
Masters
Thompson
North St.
St. Andrew
Hill
Hunter
Wallace
Washington
Green
Melon
Ogden
Coats
James
Logan Sq.
Hamilton Square
Washington Sq.
Franklin Square
Penn Square
Prune
Union
Cherry
Mead
Queen
Carpenter
Navy Yard
Callowhill
Wood
Vine
Chestnut
Walnut
Locust
Spruce
Pine
Lombard
South
Shippen
Catharine
Christian
Federal
Oxford
Wharton
Reed
Dickson
Franklin
Morris
Moore
Mifflin
Mt Kean
Snyder
Jackson
Oxford
Brown
Poplar
Parrish
Coats
Melon
Wallace
Washington
Green
Hunter
Hill
Thompson
Masters
Ogden
Marsh
Cherry
Franklin
Bedford
Master
Fairmount
Pratt
Callowhill
Wood
Vine
Sassafras or Race
Cherry
Mulberry or Arch
Filbert
Chesnut
George
Walnut
Locust
Spruce
Pine
Lombard
Cedar or South
Shippen
Catharine
Christian
Federal
Washington
Oxford
Wharton
Reed
Dickson
Franklin
Morris
Moore
Mifflin
Mt Kean
Snyder
Jackson
Navy Yard
Arsenal
Naval Asylum
Ferry Road
Delaware River
Schuylkill River
Blockley
Kensington
Southwark
Moyamensing
Passyunk
Northern Liberties
Spring Garden
Penn District

Carlisle, Chambersburg, Easton, Erie, Germantown, Lancaster, Norristown, Pottsville, Reading, and York.

Productive Resources.—The principal products are horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, eggs, butter, cheese, wax, peaches, sugar, wine, hops, tobacco, silk, wool, hemp, flax, hay, lumber, wheat, rye, barley, oats, buckwheat, potatoes, and Indian corn. The mineral wealth of this state is immense, consisting principally of coal, iron, and salt. The coal is of two kinds, "bituminous," which occurs in great abundance on the western side of the Alleganies, and "anthracite," which is found only on the easterly side of the mountains. The iron, which is of superior quality, is extensively wrought, and is inexhaustible in its supply. Toward the southwest part of the state salt springs abound, from which is manufactured large quantities of salt.

Manufactures.—The manufactures of Pennsylvania are varied and extensive. The number of iron-works in the state are rising 500, and the capital invested over $20,000,000, employing over 40,000 men. Next in importance are cotton and woollen fabrics, in which a capital of $8,000,000 is invested, employing 15,000 men, and the annual products amount to about $10,000,000. Leather, paper, and glass, are among the minor manufactures.

Railroads and Canals.—Pennsylvania has greatly extended and facilitated her trade by her internal improvements. The great central line of railroad communication extends from Philadelphia to Lancaster, 70 miles, thence to Hollidaysburg, 175 miles, thence to Johnstown, 36 miles, and thence to Pittsburg. From Pittsburg it continues west to connect with the railroads in Ohio. The principal roads beside the line above-named, are, the Reading, 92 miles; Philadelphia and Baltimore, 98 miles; and the Cumberland Valley, 77 miles. There

try. To these come vast quantities of provisions from the surrounding region, with the rich and varied fruits of New Jersey and Delaware.

By the water-works, on the Schuylkill, at Fairmount, a large body of water is raised into elevated reservoirs, whence it is distributed over the city by iron pipes. A beautiful suspension bridge spans the Schuylkill, at Fairmount, and several railroad bridges also lead to the city.

There are in Philadelphia a number of public parks, laid out with taste and beauty, shaded by trees, and adorned with walks, fountains, and other appropriate ornaments. In the rear of Independence hall is Independence square, a favorite and agreeable public resort. Other public grounds are, Franklin, Washington, Logan, and Rittenhouse squares.

Outside of the city are Pratt's gardens, on the Schuylkill, near the water-works, and below, Barton's gardens both of which are interesting spots. These, with the beautiful villas, and soft, but rich scenery of the river, render Philadelphia as an agreeable a place of residence as any large city in the country.

Properly forming a part of the city, but having distinct municipal incorporations, are the five districts, Southwark, Moyamensing, Northern Liberties, Kensington, and Spring Garden. These, with several adjacent villages, though for convenience of government, and for local causes, separated from the city, in nature, connection, and interest, and for all practical purposes, may be identified with it, except, perhaps, in the crookedness of their streets, which form one distinctive feature from the city itself.

The manufactures of Philadelphia are varied and important, embracing nearly all the articles produced by American industry. The railroads diverging from Philadelphia are, the Philadelphia, Wilmington, and Baltimore; the Philadelphia, Harrisburgh, and Pittsburgh; the Philadelphia, Reading, and Pottsville; the Philadelphia, Germantown, and Norristown; the Camden and Amboy; the Columbia and Philadelphia; the Philadelphia and Westchester; and the Philadelphia and Trenton Branch.

The canals, communicating directly, or through rivers, with Philadelphia, are, the Schuylkill Navigation, which extends to Port Carbon; the Pennsylvania; the Morris, which enters the Delaware, at Easton; and the Delaware and Raritan, between Bordentown and New Brunswick, on the Raritan river, which is navigable for steamboats from New York.

The population of the city in 1685 was 2,500., in 1790, 42,520; in 1800, 70,287; in 1810, 96,664; in 1820, 108,116; in 1830, 167,188; in 1840, 258,037; in 1850, 409,353.

* The flourishing city of Pittsburg, second in population and business in Pennsylvania, has justly been styled the "Birmingham of America." It is situated at the head of Ohio river, which is here formed by the confluence of the Allegany and Monongahela. It is 297 miles westerly from Philadelphia, and 226 miles from Washington. The city is built on a broad level point of land, between the two rivers, and is enclosed by hills, which are filled with bituminous coal. This constitutes the fuel for the vast number of factories, the tall chimneys of which bristle the town, belching black clouds of smoke, that darken the air, and stain the houses a dusky hue. In point of beauty, therefore, Pittsburg has little that is attractive; yet, there is something interesting in the concentration of industry and enterprise, which this dark city exhibits. Here, before the settlement of the town, in 1760, stood Fort du Quesne, for a long time one of the most important posts in the hands of the French, who abandoned it in 1758, when it was named, by the British, Fort Pitt. The dwellings are mostly of brick, many of them elegant and substantial, though dingy with smoke. The flourishing towns and villages which surround this city afford pleasant sites for residences. Of these places, which are virtual suburbs of Pittsburg, Allegany city, on the opposite bank of the Allegany, is the most important. The river is here spanned by a fine bridge, 1,122 feet long, resting upon five stone piers. Bridges cross it at two other points, and the Pennsylvania canal has a splendid aqueduct, 1,200 feet long, over the same stream. On the Monongahela are Birmingham, and other settlements, which are connected by a bridge, 1,500 feet long, and several ferries.

From its position, Pittsburg is a great commercial, as well as manufacturing emporium. It holds to Pennsylvania the same relation as Buffalo does to New York, being the gate of commerce between the East and the West. Hither come a large number of steamboats, during the season of navigation, from New Orleans, and

PITTSBURG
Pennsylvania R.R. Depot
Pennsylvania Canal
Suspension Bridge
Smithfield
Wood
Market
Liberty
Penn
Second
Third
Fourth
Fifth
Sixth
Grant
Ross
Duquesne Way
Allegheny River
Monongahela River
Ohio River
Bridge
Wayne
Webster
Chauncy
Centre
Francis
Morgan
Turnbull
Herbert
Wallace
Robinson
Burrows
Miami L.
Wandot Lane
Widsworth
Delaware
Soho St.
Mohawk Lane
Pennsylvania Av.
Braddock
Forbes
Addison
Rose
Reed
Lane
Erin
Kirkpatrick
Somers
Duncan
Ridge
Redford
Fisk
Smith
Morton
Watkins
Carroll
Locust
Pine
Harrison
Mechanic
Adams
Factory
Quarry
Liberty
Penn
Walnut
Chestnut
Cherry
Ohio
Water
Front
Hope
Grant
Cedar
Morgan
Craig
Bank Lane
Webster
Beaver
Federal
Pitt
Sandusky
Liberty
Washington
Common
Garrison Al.
Harkers Al.
Cecils Al.
Evans Al.
Hand St.
St. Clair
Pitt St.
Irwin
Marbury
Duquesne
Penn St.
Short
Water
Robinson
Kilbuck
Lacock
Anna
Rebecca
Craig
Court
Bank Lane
Diamond
Virgin
Liberty
Strawberry Al.
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Graurille
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Dinwiddie
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are about 40 railroads in the state, of an aggregate length of 1,500 miles. The railroads of Pennsylvania have been built at a cost of $45,000,000. Among the canals of Pennsylvania are, the Eastern and Juniata sections of the Pennsylvania canal, extending from the Susquehannah to Hollidaysburg, 172 miles; and the western division, extending from Johnstown to Pittsburg. From Pittsburg the Beaver canal runs into Ohio, 31 miles, and the Erie Extension canal will continue the line to Erie, on the lake, 105 miles. The whole length of canals in the state is 1,280 miles, 848 miles of which are owned by the state, and 432 miles by companies. The total cost of the canals of Pennsylvania is $35,000,000.

Commerce.—The exports of Pennsylvania, to foreign ports, in 1851, amounted to $5,350,000; imports, $14,170,000. The total shipping of the state amounts to 260,000 tons, of which about 65,000 tons are engaged in foreign trade.

Education.—The colleges of Pennsylvania are numerous. The principal are, the university, at Philadelphia, founded in 1755, with a medical school attached; Dickinson college, at Carlisle, founded in 1783, to which is attached a law school; Jefferson college, at Canonsburg, founded in 1802; Washington college, founded in 1806; Allegany college, at Meadville; Pennsylvania college, at Gettysburg; Lafayette college, at Easton; Marshall college, at Mercersburg; and the Western university, at Pittsburg. Jefferson and Philadelphia medical colleges are located at Philadelphia. There are theological schools at Gettysburg, Mercersburg, Allegany, Canonsburg, Pittsburg, Meadville, and Philadelphia. There are in the state about 500 academies, and 10,000 common schools.

Population.—In 1790, 434,373; in 1800, 602,365; in 1810, 810,091; in 1820, 1,049,458; in 1830, 1,348,233; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows:—

Counties.	1850.	1840.
Adams	25,981	23,044
Allegheny	138,290	81,235
Armstrong	29,560	28,365
Beaver	26,689	29,368
Bedford	23,052	29,335
Berks	77,129	64,569
Blair	21,777	new co.
Bradford	42,831	32,769
Bucks	56,091	48,107
Butler	30,346	22,378
Cambria	17,773	11,256
Carbon	15,686	new co.
Centre	23,355	20,492
Chester	66,438	57,515
Clarion	23,565	new co.
Clearfield	12,586	7,834
Clinton	11,207	8,323
Columbia	17,710	24,267
Crawford	37,849	31,724
Cumberland	34,327	30,953
Dauphin	35,754	30,118
Delaware	24,679	19,791
Elk	3,531	new co.
Erie	38,742	31,344
Fayette	39,112	33,574
Forest	561	new co.
Franklin	39,904	37,793
Fulton	7,567	new co.
Greene	22,136	19,147
Huntingdon	24,786	35,484
Indiana	27,170	20,782
Jefferson	12,957	7,253
Juniata	13,029	11,080
Lancaster	98,944	84,203
Lawrence	21,079	new co.
Lebanon	26,071	21,872
Lehigh	32,479	25,785
Luzerne	56,072	44,006
Lycoming	26,257	22,649
M'Kean	5,254	2,975
Mercer	33,172	32,873
Mifflin	14,980	13,092
Monroe	13,270	9,879
Montgomery	58,291	47,241
Montour	13,239	new co.
Northampton	40,235	40,996
Northumberland	23,272	20,027
Perry	20,088	17,096
Philadelphia	408,762	258,037
Pike	5,881	3,832
Potter	6,048	3,371
Schuylkill	60,713	29,053
Somerset	24,416	19,650
Susquehannah	28,688	21,195
Sullivan	3,694	new co.
Tioga	23,987	15,498
Union	26,083	22,787
Venango	18,310	17,900
Warren	13,671	9,278
Washington	44,939	41,279
Wayne	21,890	11,848
Wyoming	10,655	new co.
Westmoreland	51,726	42,699
York	57,450	47,010
Total	2,311,786	1,724,031

Number of slaves in 1790, 3,737; in 1800, 1,706; in 1810, 795; in 1820, 211; in 1830, 403; in 1840, 64.

Government.—The government is vested in a governor, senate, and house of representatives. The governor is elected for three years, and is ineligible for the next three years; the senate for three years, one third, annually, in dis-

the valley of the Mississippi, and Ohio rivers. The Pennsylvania canal, after traversing the state, and crossing the Allegany on its great aqueduct, passes by a tunnel under a hill near the city, and enters the Monongahela. Pittsburg is connected with Lake Erie by the Ohio and Pennsylvania, and the Cleveland and Pittsburg railroads, and with Philadelphia by the Grand Trunk railroads.

The city contains an elegant courthouse, 165 feet long, 100 feet wide, and 148 feet from the ground to the top of the dome, which affords a delightful view of the populous neighborhood, and rich and picturesque surrounding region; also a prison, the Western University of Pennsylvania, finely seated on an adjacent elevation, and numerous churches, banks, hotels, and other prominent buildings. The Allegany river affords a plentiful supply of water, which is distributed over the city by expensive and convenient water-works; and the bituminous coal of the adjoining hills yields gas for illuminating the town.

The manufactures embrace almost every article of domestic necessity and convenience. Machinery, cutlery, glass, cotton cloth, pottery, paints, and drugs, are a few of the vast and innumerable variety produced.

The population of the city in 1800 was 1,565; in 1810, 4,768; in 1820, 7,248; in 1830, 12,542; in 1840, 21,115, in 1850, 50,519.

tricts; and the representatives annually, at the state election, second Tuesday in October. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, courts of oyer and terminer, common pleas, and other inferior courts. The judiciary is elected by the people. The right of suffrage is vested in every white freeman of twenty-two years of age, who has resided in the state one year, and paid a tax. White freemen, between twenty-one and twenty-two years of age, having resided in the state a year, may vote without having paid a tax.

History.—The Dutch, from their first settlement upon Manhattan island, carried on trade upon the banks of the Delaware; but there seems not to have been a permanent settlement in Pennsylvania until about the year 1640, when a fort was erected upon the island of Tinicum by the Swedes, and a number of settlements were soon after made. In 1681, William Penn obtained a grant from Charles II., of the lands northward of Maryland, and westward of Delaware, which was called "Pennsylvania." In 1682, the territories (the present state of "Delaware") were annexed to his grant, and thus remained until 1691, when they withdrew from the Union. The year following, Penn's provincial government was taken from him, and Delaware was reunited to Pennsylvania. In 1694, Penn was restored to his proprietary right, and the two colonies continued their union until 1703, when they agreed on separation, and never after united in legislation, although the governor of Pennsylvania continued to preside over both, until the three lower counties on the Delaware, as such, were represented in the first Congress in New York, in 1775. The first permanent settlement in Pennsylvania was made on Tinicum island, just below the mouth of the Schuylkill, in 1640. The first deliberate assembly was convened at New Castle, in 1682. The second assembly was held at Philadelphia, in 1683. Penn died in 1718, leaving his interest in Pennsylvania, as an inheritance to his children, in whose possession it remained until the Revolution, when their claim was purchased by the commonwealth for £130,000. In consequence of a controversy between Maryland and Pennsylvania, respecting their common boundaries, a line was finally fixed in 1762, by actual survey, by two eminent English engineers, Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon, and since that time the boundary between these states has been known by the name of "Mason and Dixon's Line." The last remaining portion of Pennsylvania, lying in the northwest portion of the state, not previously purchased, was bought of the Indians, in 1784. In 1776, a state constitution was framed, which continued until 1790, when it was changed, and remained in force until 1838, at which time the present one was adopted. The constitution of the United States was ratified by this state in 1787. Motto of the seal, "Virtue, Liberty, and Independence."

PROPRIETARY GOVERNORS AND PRESIDENTS.

William Penn, Prop. & Gov...1682	John Evans, Deputy Governor..1704	Robert H. Morris, Deputy Gov..1754
Thomas Lloyd, President.....1684	Charles Gookin, Deputy Gov..1709	William Denny, Deputy Gov..1756
John Blackwell. Deputy Gov..1688	Sir William Keith, Dep. Gov...1717	James Hamilton.....1759
Benjamin Fletcher, Governor..1693	Patrick Gordon, Deputy Gov...1726	John Penn.....1763
William Markham, Governor..1693	James Logan, President.....1736	James Hamilton, President....1771
William Penn, Governor.....1699	George Thomas, Dep. Governor1738	Richard Penn.....1771
Andrew Hamilton, Dep. Gov..1701	Anthony Palmer, President....1747	John Penn, Governor.....1773
Edward Shippen, President....1703	James Hamilton, Deputy Gov..1748	

PRESIDENTS UNDER THE FIRST CONSTITUTION.

Thomas Wharton.....1777	William Moore.....1781	Benjamin Franklin.....1785
Joseph Reed.....1778	John Dickinson.....1782	Thomas Mifflin.....1788

GOVERNORS UNDER THE NEW CONSTITUTION.

Thomas Mifflin.....1790	J. Andrew Shulze.....1823	David R. Porter.....1838
Thomas M'Kean.....1799	George Wolf.....1829	Francis R. Shunk.....1844
Simon Snyder.....1808	Joseph Ritner.....1835	William F. Johnson.....1849
William Findlay.....1817	George Wolf.....1836	William Bigler.....1852
Joseph Hiester.....1820	Joseph Ritner.....1837	

DELAWARE.*

Delaware, the smallest state in the Union, in respect to population, and, next to Rhode Island, in territory also, lies between 38° 27′ and 39° 50′ north latitude, and 75° and 75° 40′ west longitude from Greenwich, and is bounded north by Pennsylvania; east by Delaware river and bay; and south and west by Maryland. Its length from north to south is 90 miles, its greatest breadth 32 miles, and its superficial area 2,120 miles.

Physical Aspect.—The general aspect of this state is that of an extended plain, or several inclined plains, favorable for cultivation. Some of the upper portions of the county of Newcastle, however, are irregular and broken; the heights of Christiana are lofty and commanding; and the hills of Brandywine are rough and stony; but in the region toward Delaware river and bay there is very little diversity of surface. On the table-land, forming the dividing ridge between the Delaware and Chesapeake, is a chain of swamps, which give rise to various streams, that descend the slopes to either bay. Along the Delaware river, and some ten miles into the interior, the soil generally consists of a rich clay, well-adapted to the purposes of agriculture; but between this tract and the swamps the soil is sandy and light, and of inferior quality. In the county of Newcastle the soil is a strong clay; in Kent it is mixed with sand; and in Sussex the sand greatly predominates.

Rivers and Bays.—The principal streams, besides the Delaware river, which forms a part of the eastern boundary, are Brandywine, Jones, Christiana, Duck, and Mispillion creeks, and Choptank, Marshy Hope, and Nanticoke rivers. Indian river enters the Atlantic by a broad estuary, and Delaware bay washes the state on the east.

Climate.—The climate is generally mild and healthy; but the two extremes differ in temperature more than might be expected in so little extent of latitude, and in so small a difference in relative height. The winters in the northern part are somewhat cold, but never severe. The summers are hot in those situations not tempered by the breezes from the bays.

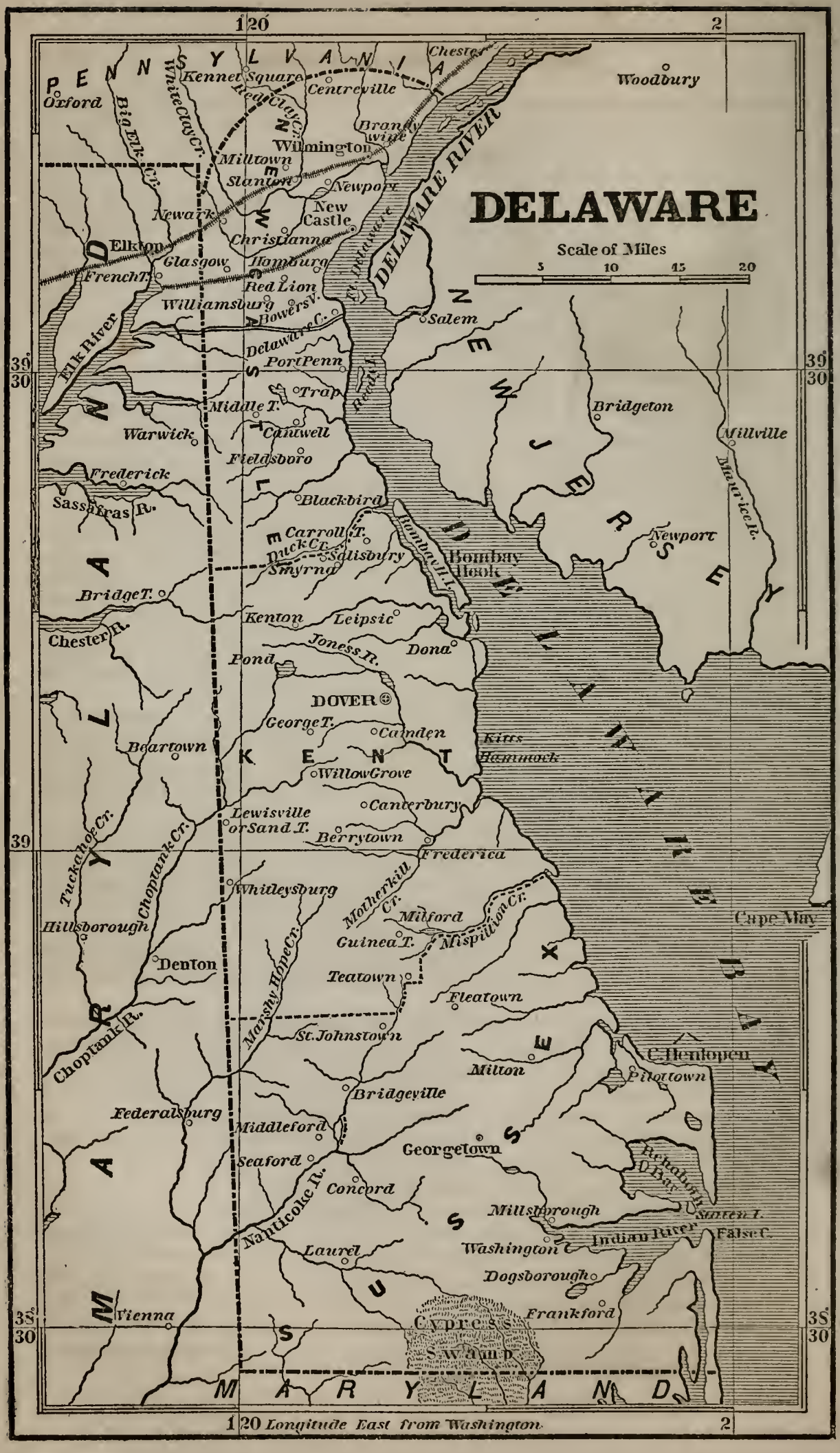
Chief Towns.—Dover is the seat of government. The other populous towns are, Delaware City, Georgetown, Milford, New Castle, Smyrna, and Wilmington.

Productive Resources.—The principal staple products are horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, poultry, eggs, swine, beef, pork, silk, wool, hay, butter, cheese, milk, wheat, rye, barley, oats, buckwheat, potatoes, peaches, and Indian corn. The county of Sussex exports large quantities of timber, obtained from Cypress swamps, or Indian river. Delaware contains but few minerals. Among the branches of the Nanticoke there are large quantities of bog iron ore, however, well-adapted for castings. Before the Revolution it was worked to some extent, but since that period the business has declined.

Manufactures.—The manufactures of Delaware consist chiefly of woollen and cotton goods, leather, paper, iron, gunpowder, &c. Its flouring-mills are numerous and extensive, and its flour takes a high stand in the market.

Railroads and Canals.—The only railroads within the state are, the Frenchtown, from New Castle to Frenchtown, 16 miles; the Philadelphia and Wilmington, and the Wilmington and Baltimore, which form part of the great

* So called, from the bay on which it lies, and which received its name from Lord Delaware (or de la War), governor of Virginia, who died upon its waters.


DELAWARE
Scale of Miles
5 10 15 20
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW JERSEY
MARYLAND
DELAWARE RIVER
DELAWARE BAY
NEWCASTLE
KENT
SUSSEX
Oxford
Kennet Square
Centreville
Chester
Woodbury
Brandywine
Wilmington
Milltown
Slanton
Newport
New Castle
Newark
Christianna
Elkton
Glasgow
Hamburg
French T.
Red Lion
Williamsburg
Bowers V.
Salem
Elk River
Delaware C.
Port Penn
Trap
Middle T.
Cantwell
Warwick
Fieldsboro
Bridgeton
Millville
Maurice R.
Frederick
Sassafras R.
Blackbird
Carroll T.
Duck Cr.
Salisbury
Smyrna
Bombay Hook
Bombay H. I.
Newport
Bridge T.
Kenton
Leipsic
Chester R.
Joness R.
Dona
Pond
DOVER
George T.
Camden
Kitts Hammock
Beartown
Willow Grove
Canterbury
Lewisville or Sand T.
Berrytown
Frederica
Tuckahoe Cr.
Choptank Cr.
Whitleysburg
Motherkill Cr.
Milford
Mispillion Cr.
Cape May
Hillsborough
Guinea T.
Denton
Marshy Hope Cr.
Teatown
Fleatown
Choptank R.
St. Johnstown
C. Henlopen
Milton
Pilottown
Bridgeville
Federalsburg
Middleford
Georgetown
Seaford
Rehoboth Bay
Concord
Nanticoke R.
Millsborough
Staten I.
Indian River
False C.
Washington
Laurel
Dogsborough
Vienna
Frankford
Cypress Swamp
Longitude East from Washington
120
2
39° 30
38° 30

line of travel from the northern to the southern Atlantic states. The Chesapeake and Delaware sloop canal, 14 miles long, is the only canal in the state. It extends from Delaware city to Back creek, and unites the waters of the two great bays from which it takes its name.

Commerce.—The foreign commerce of Delaware is very small. The amount of shipping owned in the state is about 17,000 tons, 15,000 of which is engaged in the coasting-trade.

Education.—There is but one college in Delaware, which is located at Newark, and was founded in 1833. There are about 30 academies, and 250 common schools in the state.

Population.—In 1790, 59,094; in 1800, 64,273; in 1810, 72,974; in 1820, 72,749; in 1830, 76,739; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows:—

1840.....	New Castle.....	33.120	Kent.....	19,872	Sussex.....	25,093	Total.....	78,085
1850.....	do.	42,784	do.	22,816	do.	25,935	do.....	91,535

Number of slaves in 1790, 8,887; in 1800, 6,153; in 1810, 4,177; in 1820, 4,509; in 1830, 3,292; in 1840, 2,605; in 1850, 2,289.

Government.—The legislative power is vested in a senate, of nine members, three from each county, chosen for four years, and a house of representatives, of twenty-one members, seven from each county, chosen for two years. The executive power is vested in a governor, chosen for four years, and ineligible ever after. General election, biennially, second Tuesday in November. The judicial power is vested in a court of errors, superior court, court of chancery, orphan's court, oyer and terminer, general sessions, register's court, and such other courts as may be established by law. The right of suffrage is granted to every white male citizen, twenty-two years of age, after one year's residence in the state, and one month in the county where he votes, and having within two years paid a tax; also to those persons, qualified as aforesaid, twenty-one years of age, without payment of tax.

History.—Lord Delaware, governor of Virginia, first entered the bay known by his name in 1610. The Dutch from the New Netherlands (New York) soon afterward visited it, and claimed jurisdiction. The first permanent settlement upon the Delaware was made by a colony of Swedes, in 1627, under the auspices of the Swedish West India Company. The Dutch asserted their claim by an appeal to arms, and, with a competent force, took possession of the country, in 1655, and attached it to the New Netherlands. When the latter came into the possession of the duke of York, in 1681, William Penn, as stated in the history of Pennsylvania, purchased what is now the state of Delaware, and annexed it to Pennsylvania. Delaware had a legislature separate from that of Pennsylvania, but after 1703 one governor ruled both. It remained in this subordinate condition until 1776, when the inhabitants declared it a free and independent state, and organized a government under it. It was the first to ratify the constitution, which it did on the 7th of December, 1787. Its state constitution was adopted in 1792, and revised and amended in 1831. Motto of the state seal, "Liberty and Independence."

GOVERNORS AND PRESIDENTS OF DELAWARE.

Governors of New Sweden.	Peter Hollændare....1640	John Papegoia.....1652	Under New Netherlands,
Peter Minuits.....1637	John Printz 1642	John C. Rising.....1654	N. Y. and Pa. 1655 to 1776

PRESIDENTS UNDER THE FIRST CONSTITUTION.

John M'Kinley.....1777	John Dickinson.....1782	Nicholas Vandyke...1783	John Davis, Act. Pr..1789
Cæsar Rodney.....1778	John Cook.....1783	Thomas Collins.....1786	Joshua Clayton.....1789

GOVERNORS UNDER THE PRESENT CONSTITUTION..

Joshua Clayton.....1793	George Truett.....1808	Joseph Haslett.....1823	William B. Cooper...1841
Gunning Bedford....1796	Joseph Haslett.....1811	Samuel Paynter.....1824	Thomas Stockton....1845
Daniel Rogers.....1797	Daniel Rodney.....1814	Charles Polk.....1827	Wm. Temple, Act. G..1846
Richard Bassett.....1798	John Clarke.....1817	David Hazzard.....1830	William Thorp.....1847
James Sykes.....1801	Jacob Stout.....1820	Caleb P. Bennett....1833	William Ross.....1851
David Hall.....1802	John Collins.....1821	Chas. Polk, Act. Gov..1836	
Nathaniel Mitchell...1805	Caleb Rodney.....1822	Cornelius P. Comegys1837	

MARYLAND
PENNSYLVANIA
VIRGINIA
NEW JERSEY
DELAWARE
DELAWARE BAY
ALLEGHANY
WASHINGTON
FREDERICK
CARROLL
BALTIMORE
HARFORD
CECIL
KENT
QUEEN ANN
CAROLINE
TALBOT
DORCHESTER
WORCESTER
SOMERSET
ANNAPOLIS
PRINCE GEORGES
ANNARUNDEL
CALVERT
CHARLES
ST. MARY
MONTGOMERY
DIST. OF COLUMBIA
Smithfield
Shelbyport
Mt. Pleasant
Jonasville
Frostburg
Westport
Glade
Yorhiogen R.
Cumberland
Old T.
Potomac River
Pratts V.
Hancock T.
Martinsburg
Harpers Ferry
Williamsport
Boonsboro
Sharpsburg
Hagars T.
Emmetsburg
Creegers T.
Woodsboro
Frederick T.
Ridge
Gettysburg
Manchester
Taney T.
Westminster
Reisters T.
Owings Mills
Lisbon
Barnes T.
Hyatts T.
Mid. Brook
Unity
Pool
Leesburg
Rockville
Matilda V.
Vannsville
Bladensburg
Shrewsbury
Wiersburg
Hereford
Belair
Havre de Grace
Abingdon
Towson T.
Baltimore
Ellicotts Mills
Elkridge
Savage
Indian L'g
Chester
Wilmington
Delaware R.
Port Deposit
Elk T.
Bohemia
George T.
Bridge T.
Smyrna
Chester T.
Chester R.
Centre V.
Greensboro
Kent I.
Vye
Denton
Easton
Federalsburg
New Market
Cambridge
Church Cr.
Vienna
Buckstown
Nanticoke R.
Quantico
St. Martins
Salisbury
Newtown
Princess Ann
Snow Hill
Kingston
DOVER
Georgetown
Concord
London
Marlboro
Nottingham
Piscataway
Ft. Washington
Bryantown
Tobacco
Newport
Leonard T.
Gr. Mill
Pr. Frederick
L. Marlboro
Potomac River
Simpsonville
Bladensburg
Rock Cr.
WASHINGTON COUNTY
George town
WASHINGTON
ALEXANDRIA CO.
Four Mile Run
Eastern Br.
Alexandria
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA
Reference
1 Capitol
2 Presidents House
1 2 3 Miles
10 20 30 40 50 Miles
Longitude West from Washington
39
38
2
1
0
1

MARYLAND.*

Maryland is situated between 38° and 39° 43′ north latitude, and 75° 10′ and 79° 20′ west longitude from Greenwich, and is bounded north by Pennsylvania and Delaware; east by Delaware and the Atlantic; south by Virginia and Chesapeake bay; and southwest and west by Virginia, from which it is separated in part by the Potomac. Its superficial area is 13,959 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—This state may be said to embrace the three great zones of soil, alluvial, hilly, and mountainous. In the counties on the eastern side of the Chesapeake, with the exception of a small part of the northern extremity, is an extensive plain, low and sandy, and much intersected by rivers and creeks, having but few springs, and abounding, in many places, with stagnant pools. The land in this portion of the peninsula is of much better quality than in the Delaware part. The country, on the western shore of the Chesapeake, below the falls of the rivers, is similar to that on the eastern side. Above the falls the surface becomes gradually uneven and hilly, and in the western part of the state it is mountainous. There is much good soil existing in every section of the state; but the most productive in grain and fruits are some of the limestone tracts in the western counties.

Mountains.—Several branches of the Allegany chain cross this state from Pennsylvania to Virginia, the principal of which are, North mountain, South mountain, Warrior's, Sugar-Loaf, Savage, and Will's mountains, and Sideling hill.

Rivers and Bays.—The principal rivers are, the Potomac, Susquehannah, Patapsco, Patuxet, Elk, Sassafras, Chester, Choptank, Nanticoke, Pokomoke, St. Mary's, and the Severn. Chesapeake bay runs through the state from north to south, dividing it into two parts. The part east of the bay is called the "Eastern Shore," and the portion adjoining the bay on the west is called the "Western Shore." Sinepuxent bay lies near the Atlantic coast, and is connected to the ocean by an inlet of the same name.

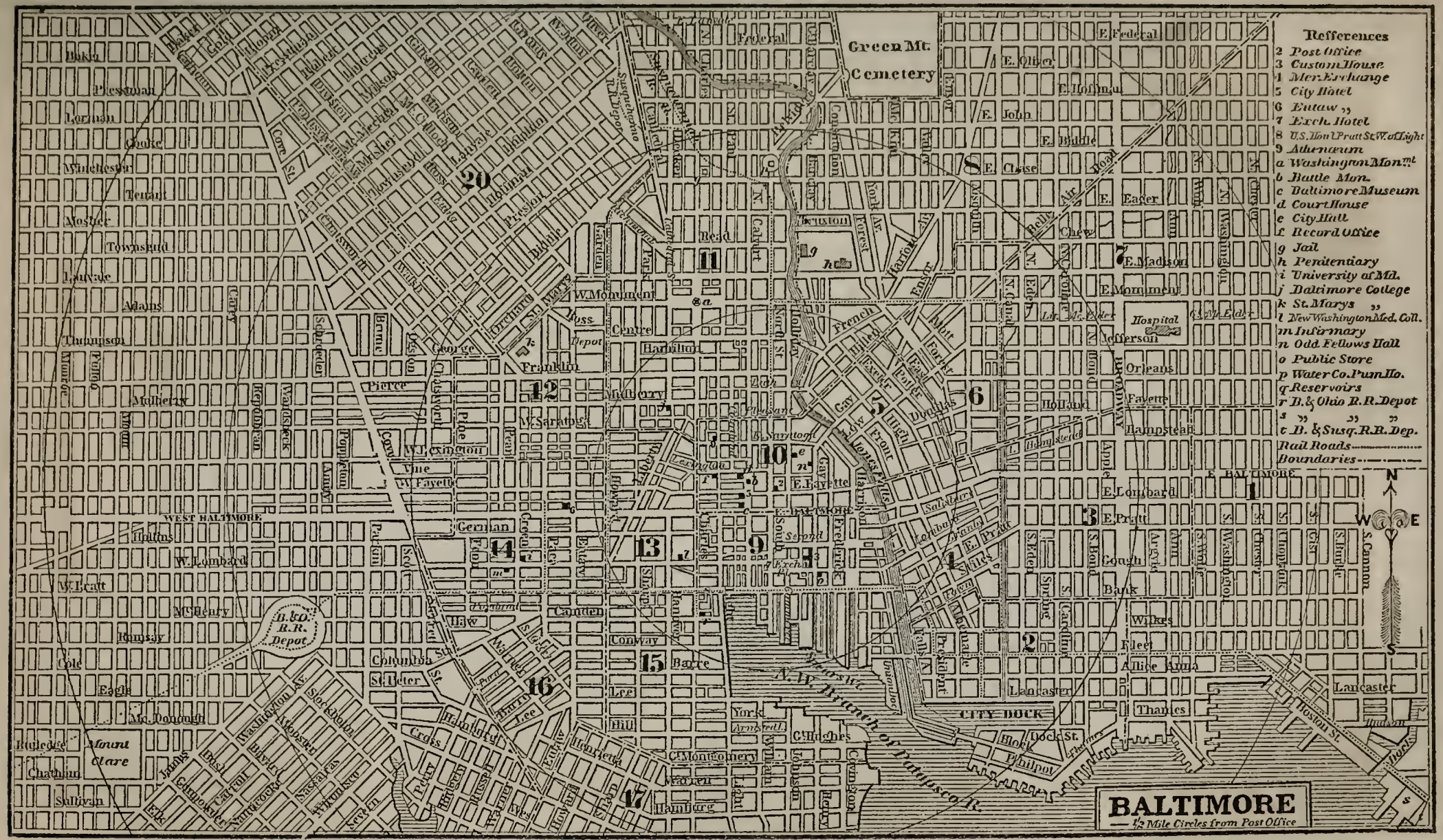
Climate.—In the eastern part of the state the climate in summer is moist, sultry, and disagreeable, and the inhabitants are subject to agues, intermittents, and bilious attacks; but in the western regions, toward Virginia, where the land is more elevated, the climate is agreeable, and highly salubrious.

Cities and Chief Towns.—The city of Annapolis is the seat of government. Baltimore is a city. The other populous towns are, Bel-Air, Cam-

*Maryland received its name in honor of Henrietta Maria, queen of Charles I., and daughter of Henry IV., of France.

*Baltimore, the principal city of the state, and the third city of the United States in population, is situated on the north side of Patapsco river, 14 miles from its entrance into Chesapeake, 100 miles southwest of Philadelphia, and 40 miles from Washington. It is built on uneven ground, bending around the innermost of three harbors, which successively diminish in space and depth. The outer one is 22 feet deep, one mile and a quarter long, from its entrance into the second, which is 15 feet deep, half a mile wide, and one mile long. Vessels of about 600 tons enter this harbor, while the third, which enters the city, is deep enough for vessels of 200 tons. The outer entrance is defended by fortifications, which repulsed a British fleet of sixteen ships in 1814.

The appearance of the city, when viewed from the water, is imposing. The most conspicuous and fashionable part is built on a bold, but not steep elevation; and the steeples, monuments, and domes, with which it is crowned, greatly relieve and beautify the scene. Within the town, the streets and buildings exhibit various degrees of beauty and regularity, when viewed from different points. In the construction of the houses, convenience and solidity appear to have been studied, rather than magnificence; but the abodes of wealthy citizens exhibit the same elegance here as in other great cities of the Union. Many of the public structures are also splendid and costly. Baltimore has been named the "Monumental city," chiefly from the two great monuments it contains. Washington monument is a Doric column, of white marble, 180 feet high, resting on a base of the same material, 20 feet high, and surmounted by a statue of the man it commemorates. Ascending by a winding


Green Mt. Cemetery
BALTIMORE
½ Mile Circles from Post Office
WEST BALTIMORE
EAST BALTIMORE
CITY DOCK
N.W. Branch of Patapsco R.
B. & O. R.R. Depot
Mount Clare
Hospital
Refferences
2 Post Office
3 Custom House
4 Mer. Exchange
5 City Hotel
6 Eutaw ,,
7 Exch. Hotel
8 U.S. Hon. Pratt St. W. of Light
9 Athenæum
a Washington Mon.mt
b Battle Mon.
c Baltimore Museum
d Court House
e City Hall
f Record Office
g Jail
h Penitentiary
i University of Md.
j Baltimore College
k St. Marys ,,
l New Washington Med. Coll.
m Infirmary
n Odd Fellows Hall
o Public Store
p Water Co. Pum. Ho.
q Reservoirs
r B. & Ohio R.R. Depot
s ,, ,, ,,
t B. & Susq. R.R. Dep.
Rail Roads
Boundaries
N
W
E
S

bridge, Chestertown, Cumberland, Centreville, Denton, Elkton, Easton, Frederick, Hagerstown, Leonardtown, Port Tobacco, Prince Frederick, Princess Anne, Rockville, Snowhill, and Upper Marlborough.

Productive Resources.—The chief products are horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, butter, cheese, wine, sugar, wax, hops, tobacco, wool, cotton, silk, hemp, flax, hay, wheat, rye, oats, barley, buckwheat, potatoes, and Indian corn. Among the mineral resources are, bog iron ore, bituminous coal, porcelain and other clays, red and yellow ochre, chrome ores, alum earth, and copperas.

Manufactures.—In manufactures, Maryland occupies a respectable position. Numerous woollen and cotton mills, copper and iron-rolling mills, are established near Baltimore, and also scattered over other parts of the state. Silk, flax, and mixed goods, are also manufactured to a considerable extent. Tanneries are numerous, and ship-building is carried on extensively. The flour of Maryland is considered second to none in the market. The capital invested in manufactures is about $12,000,000.

Railroads and Canals.—The great chain of southern railroads traverses this state. The Baltimore and Ohio railroad, extending from Baltimore to Wheeling, 178 miles, is a magnificent work. Other lines intersect the state in different directions. The Chesapeake and Ohio canal, from Georgetown, D. C., to Cumberland, 184 miles long, lies mostly in this state. It is intended to continue it to Pittsburgh, Pa., 340 miles.

Commerce.—The imports and exports of Maryland are about $14,000,000 annually. The shipping owned within the state is about 2,000,000 tons, about one half of which is engaged in the coasting trade.

Education.—There are several colleges in Maryland. Washington college, at Chestertown, founded in 1783, is the oldest; St. John's college, at Annapolis, founded in 1784, is next. Beside these are, the University of Maryland, and the St. Mary's, both of Baltimore; Mount St. Mary's, at Emmitsburg, and St. James's, near Hagerstown. There are two medical schools at Baltimore. There are besides, in the state, about 200 academies and grammar-schools, and 800 common schools.

Population.—In 1790, 319,728; in 1800, 341,548; in 1810, 380,546; in 1820, 407,350; in 1830, 447,040; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows:—

Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.
Alleghany	22,769	15,690	Charles	16,162	16,023	Somerset	22,456	19,5[illegible]8
Anne Arundel	32,393	29,532	Dorchester	18,877	18,843	St. Mary's	13,698	13,224
Baltimore City	169,054	102,313	Frederick	40,987	36,405	Talbot	13,811	12,090
Baltimore County	41,592	32,066	Harford	19,356	17,120	Washington	30,848	28,850
Calvert	9,646	9,229	Kent	11,386	10,842	Worcester	18,859	18,377
Caroline	9,692	7,806	Montgomery	15,860	14,669			
Carroll	20,616	new co.	Prince George's	21,550	19,539	Total	583,035	469,232
Cecil	18,939	17,232	Queen Anne's	14,484	12,633			

Number of slaves in 1790. 103,036; in 1800, 105,615; in 1810, 111,502; in 1820, 107, 398; in 1830, 102,294; in 1840, 89,737; 1850, 90,368.

Government.—The legislative power is vested in a senate, and a house of delegates. The senators are elected by the people for a term of four years, one half of them being chosen biennially. One senator is chosen from each county, and one from the city of Baltimore; making the present number of sen-

staircase, within the column, the visiter beholds a wide prospect of the city, and its varied environs. Battle monument, also of white marble, is 52 feet high, and was erected in memory of the patriots who fell in defence of this city against the British, in 1814. Many of the churches are remarkable for architectural beauty. The courthouse, state penitentiary, customhouse, St. Mary's college, and the halls of numerous literary and scientific institutions, are among the other important public buildings. The exchange is 225 feet wide, 141 feet deep, and 115 feet to the top of the dome. Colonnades of the Ionic order, made of Italian marble, extend across its east and west fronts.

Water is supplied in abundance from fountains in the city, and from Jones's fall, in the vicinity, by an aqueduct and pipes.

In manufactures, as in commerce, Baltimore ranks with the great cities of America. Jones's fall (a small creek dividing the city, and spanned by several beautiful bridges) and the Patapsco afford numerous excellent seats for mills and manufactories of various kinds.

The population of the city in 1775 was 5,936; in 1790, 13,503; in 1800, 26,614; in 1810, 46,555; in 1820, 62,738; in 1830, 80,625; in 1840, 134,379; in 1850, 169,012.

ators twenty-two. The members of the house of delegates are elected by the people once in two years, and until the apportionment to be made under the census of 1860, are seventy-two in number. The executive power is vested in a governor, who is chosen by the people, for a term of four years. The state is divided into three districts, and the governor is taken from each of the three districts alternately. The judicial power is vested in a court of appeals, in circuit courts, courts for the city of Baltimore, and in justices of the peace ; all elected by the people. The judges of the court of appeals, four in number, and the circuit judges, eight in number, are chosen for ten years. The general election is held on the first Wednesday of November, biennially. The constitution conveys the right of suffrage on every free white male citizen, of twenty-one years of age, having resided one year in the state, and six months in the county in which he offers to vote. Imprisonment for debt, and lotteries, are now prohibited.

History.—In 1632, Charles I. granted to Sir George Calvert (Lord Baltimore) the whole territory extending from the Potomac to the fortieth degree of north latitude, comprising not only all the present states of Maryland and Delaware, but a part of Pennsylvania and New Jersey. Though involved in a controversy for many years, respecting their common boundaries, Maryland and Pennsylvania did not fix upon their existing limits before the year 1762, when they were determined by actual survey by two eminent English engineers, Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon, and hence the present boundary between these two states is called "Mason and Dixon's line." The first permanent settlement within the limits of Maryland was made on the island of Kent, by William Claiborne, in 1632. A few months later, the grant was made to Lord Baltimore, and his brother, Leonard Calvert, proceeded to the Potomac, in 1634, with one hundred emigrants, mostly catholics, and formed a settlement at St. Mary's, where the first legislative assembly convened, in 1635. In 1774, a provincial Congress took the government into its own hands. It joined the confederacy in 1776, and adopted the federal constitution in 1788. In 1790, that portion of the state now constituting the district of Columbia, was ceded to the general government. Maryland formed her constitution in 1776, which was subjected to numerous amendments till 1851, when a new one was framed by a state convention, and adopted by the people. The motto of the seal is, "Industry the means, and plenty the result."

GOVERNORS UNDER THE PROPRIETARY AND ROYAL GOVERNMENT.

Leonard Calvert.....1637	Lord Baltimore.....1681	Charles Calvert.....1720
Thomas Green.....1647	Lionel Copley.....1692	Benedict Calvert.....1727
William Stone.....1649	Francis Nicholson.....1694	Lord Baltimore.....1733
Parliament Commissioners....1654	In the hands of the Crown....1697	Samuel Ogle.....1737
Josiah Fendall.....1658	Nathaniel Blackstone.....1699	Thomas Bladen.....1742
Philip Calvert.....1660	Thomas Tench, President.....1703	Samuel Ogle.....1747
Charles Calvert.....1662	John Seymour.....1704	Benjamin Tasker, President...1751
Lord Baltimore, Proprietor....1675	Edward Lloyd.....1704	Horatio Sharpe.....1753
Thomas Notley.....1678	John Hart.....1714	Robert Eden.....1769

UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

Thomas Johnson.....1777	Robert Bowie.....1803	T. K. Caroll.....1830
Thomas Sim Lee.....1779	Robert Wright.....1805	Daniel Martin.....1831
William Pace.....1782	Edward Lloyd.....1809	George Howard.....1831
William Smallwood.....1785	Robert Bowie.....1811	James Thomas.....1833
John Eager Howard.....1788	Levin Winder.....1812	Thomas W. Veazey.....1836
George Plater.....1792	C. Ridgeley, of Hampton.....1815	William Grason.....1839
Thomas Sim Lee.....1792	C. W. Goldsborough.....1818	Francis Thomas.....1842
John Haskins Stone.....1794	Samuel Sprigg.....1819	Thomas G. Pratt.....1845
John Henry.....1797	Samuel Stevens.....1822	Philip F. Thomas.....1848
Benjamin Ogle.....1798	Joseph Kent.....1826	Enoch L. Lowe.....1851
John Francis Mercer.....1801	Daniel Martin.....1829	

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

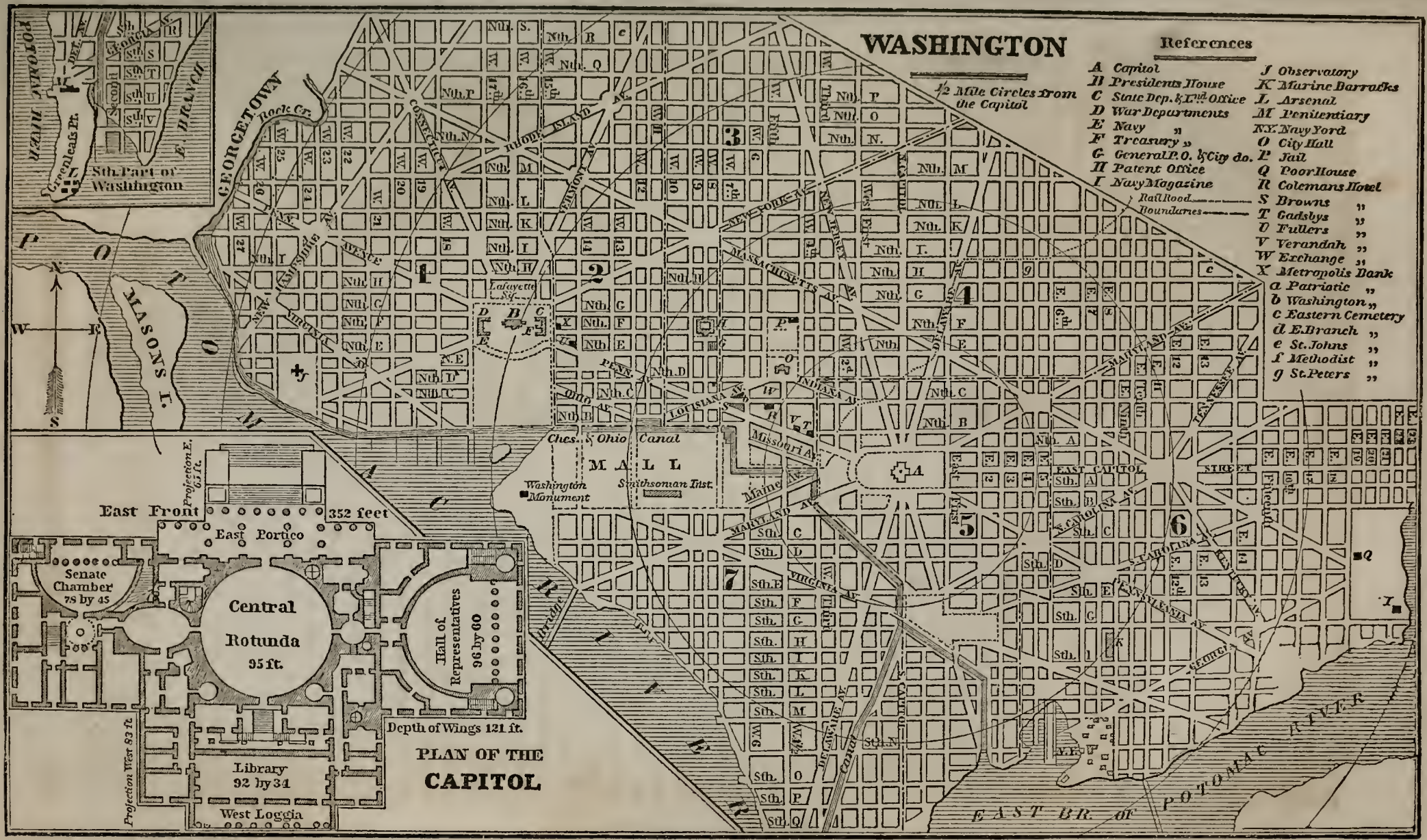
The District of Columbia was ceded to the United States by Maryland and Virginia, in 1790, and became the seat of the national government in 1800. It was originally ten miles square, lying on both sides of the Potomac, thirty-six square miles having been taken from Virginia, which constituted the city and county of Alexandria; and sixty-four square miles from Maryland, embracing the county of Washington. By an act of Congress, in 1846, which was subsequently accepted by the people of Alexandria, that county was retroceded to the state of Virginia, and the District of Columbia is now restricted to the Maryland side of the Potomac. This district was the theatre of disgraceful scenes, in our last war with England, in 1814. In August of that year Washington was left in a defenceless condition, when invaded by the British, and was deserted by the president, the heads of the departments, and by most of the citizens. The enemy entered the city, burned the capitol, including the library of Congress, the mansion of the president, the navy-yard, with its contents, and most of the public offices, except the patent-office. The whole world regarded this act as a violation of the rules of modern warfare.

The surface of this territory is gently undulating, with some low marshes, but there are several eminences which afford fine seats for the cities within its limits. The soil, with little exception, is sterile in its natural state, but has of late been rendered productive by superior cultivation. The climate is similar to that of the contiguous states. The population in 1800 was 14,093; in 1810, 24,023; in 1820, 33,039; in 1830, 39,834; in 1840, 43,712; in 1850, 51,687. Number of slaves in 1800, 3,244; in 1810, 5,395; in 1820, 6,377; in 1830, 6,119; in 1840, 4,694; in 1850, 3,687. The civil government of this district is under the immediate authority of the United States, and the municipal power is exercised by a mayor and corporation. It has never been represented in Congress.

Washington City is pleasantly situated on the east bank of the Potomac river, in latitude 38° 53′ 34″ north, and longitude 77° 1′ 30″ west from Greenwich. It is 295 miles from the ocean, following the course of the river, 225 miles southwest of New York, and 1,203 miles northeast of New Orleans.

Note.—The great seal of the United States (a front view of which is given on page 57) was adopted by Congress June 20, 1782; its device is thus described in the act:—"Arms: Paleways of thirteen pieces, argent and gules; a chief azure; the escutcheon on the breast of the American eagle displayed, proper, holding in his dexter talon an olive-branch, and in his sinister a bundle of thirteen arrows, all proper, and in his beak a scroll inscribed with this motto, 'E pluribus unum' [Many in one]. For the Crest: Over the head of the eagle, which appears above the escutcheon, a glory, or, breaking through a cloud, proper, and surrounding thirteen stars forming a constellation, argent, on an azure field."

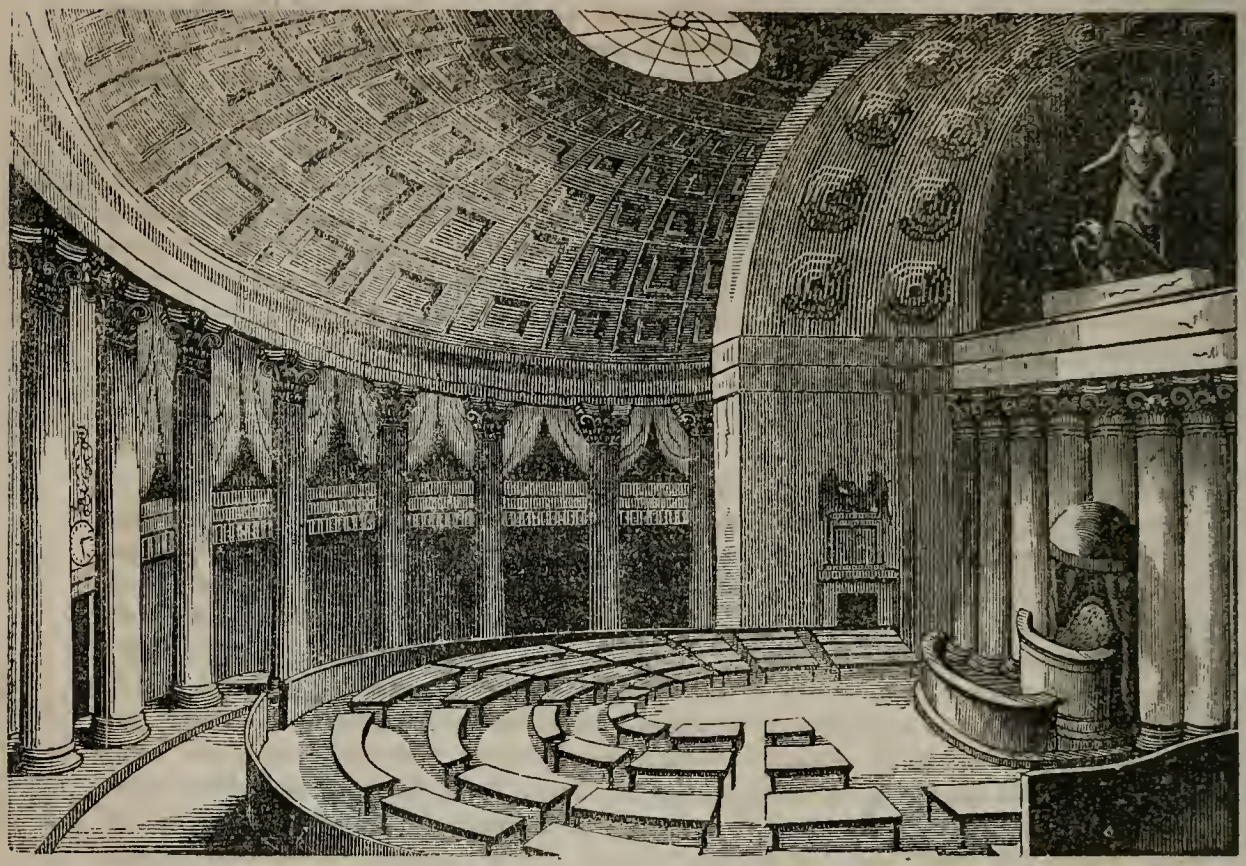
This seal has a reverse side, of which the following is the description:—"Reverse: A pyramid unfinished. (Representing the American confederacy as still incomplete,—the structure to be carried upward as new states are admitted into the Union.) In the zenith an eye in a triangle (representing the All-seeing Eye), surrounded by a glory proper. Over the eye these words, 'Annuit cœptis' [God has favored the undertaking]. On the base of the pyramid the numerical letters MDCCLXXVI., and underneath the following motto, 'Novus ordo seclorum'" (A new series of ages;—denoting that a new order of things has commenced in this western world).


WASHINGTON
½ Mile Circles from the Capitol
References
A Capitol
B Presidents House
C State Dep. & Lnd. Office
D War Departments
E Navy "
F Treasury "
G General P.O. & City do.
H Patent Office
I Navy Magazine
J Observatory
K Marine Barracks
L Arsenal
M Penitentiary
N.Y. Navy Yard
O City Hall
P Jail
Q Poor House
R Colemans Hotel
S Browns "
T Gadsbys "
U Fullers "
V Verandah "
W Exchange "
X Metropolis Bank
a Patriotic "
b Washington "
c Eastern Cemetery
d E. Branch "
e St. Johns "
f Methodist "
g St. Peters "
Rail Road
Boundaries
GEORGETOWN
Rock Cr.
Sth. Part of Washington
Greenleafs Pt.
E. BRANCH
MASONS I.
POTOMAC RIVER
Lafayette Sq.
Ches. & Ohio Canal
MALL
Washington Monument
Smithsonian Inst.
Missouri Av.
Maine Av.
Maryland Av.
Virginia Av.
Delaware Av.
Louisiana Av.
Indiana Av.
Massachusetts Av.
New York Av.
Rhode Island Av.
Connecticut Av.
Vermont Av.
Penn. Av.
Ohio Av.
Pennsylvania Av.
Georgia Av.
Tennessee Av.
Fifteenth
Eastern Cemetery
East Capitol Street
East Front
352 feet
Projection E. 65 ft.
East Portico
Senate Chamber 78 by 45
Central Rotunda 95 ft.
Hall of Representatives 96 by 60
Depth of Wings 121 ft.
Library 92 by 34
West Loggia
Projection West 83 ft.
PLAN OF THE CAPITOL
EAST BR. OF POTOMAC RIVER

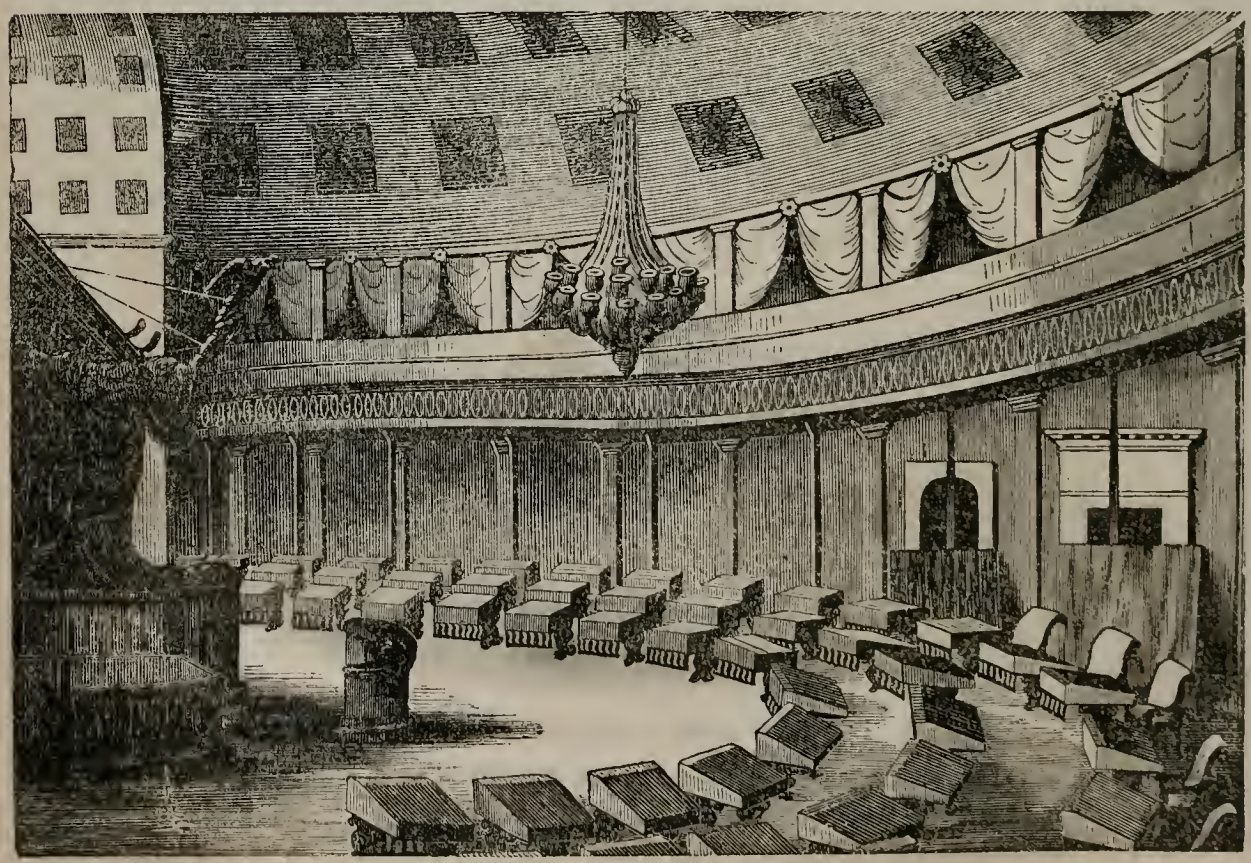
The city is built on a point of land formed by the confluence of the Potomac and the Anacosta rivers, which afford a good harbor for vessels of the largest class. Commerce, however, flows naturally toward Baltimore, leaving to Washington, perhaps, a less rapid growth, but more quiet. A more beautiful site for a city could hardly be obtained. It was selected by Washington as the fittest locality for the seat of the national government, and the city was laid out under his direction. It is said his attention was called to the advantages of this location as long previous as when he had been a youthful surveyor of the country around. Pleasant slopes, decked with elegant mansions, surrounded by hills and varied scenery, and the general aspect and airiness of the town, conduce to render Washington an agreeable place of residence. The city is planned out on a grand scale ; and if ever built up as originally designed, would be one of the finest cities in the world. By this plan seven spacious avenues were laid out, to diverge from the Capitol as a centre, and five avenues form rays from the President's House, the latter building and the Capitol being each situated on beautiful eminences, about one mile and a half apart, and connected by Pennsylvania avenue, now the principal street in the city. The avenues are named after different states, and are crossed diagonally by streets running east and west, named after the letters of the alphabet, and others running north and south, which are named after numbers. The avenues and streets leading to public places, are from 120 to 160 feet wide, and the other streets are from 70 to 110 feet wide. Only a comparatively small part of its extensive site is yet covered by buildings, which, in connection with its spacious avenues, has given it the designation of the " city of magnificent distances." A bridge a mile long spans the Potomac, another the Anacosta (sometimes termed the eastern branch of the Potomac), and two others over Rock creek, connect Washington with Georgetown. On the Anacosta is a navy-yard, occupying an area of 27 acres.

THE CAPITOL, ENLARGED.

The Capitol is justly regarded as one of the finest national buildings in the world. It stands on a gentle eminence, in the midst of a beautiful space of 23 acres, highly ornamented with trees, shrubbery, &c. The dome, which is 120 feet high from the ground, is the first object which strikes the eye at a distance. The edifice is of white freestone, and, as originally built, consisted of a central



HALL OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.



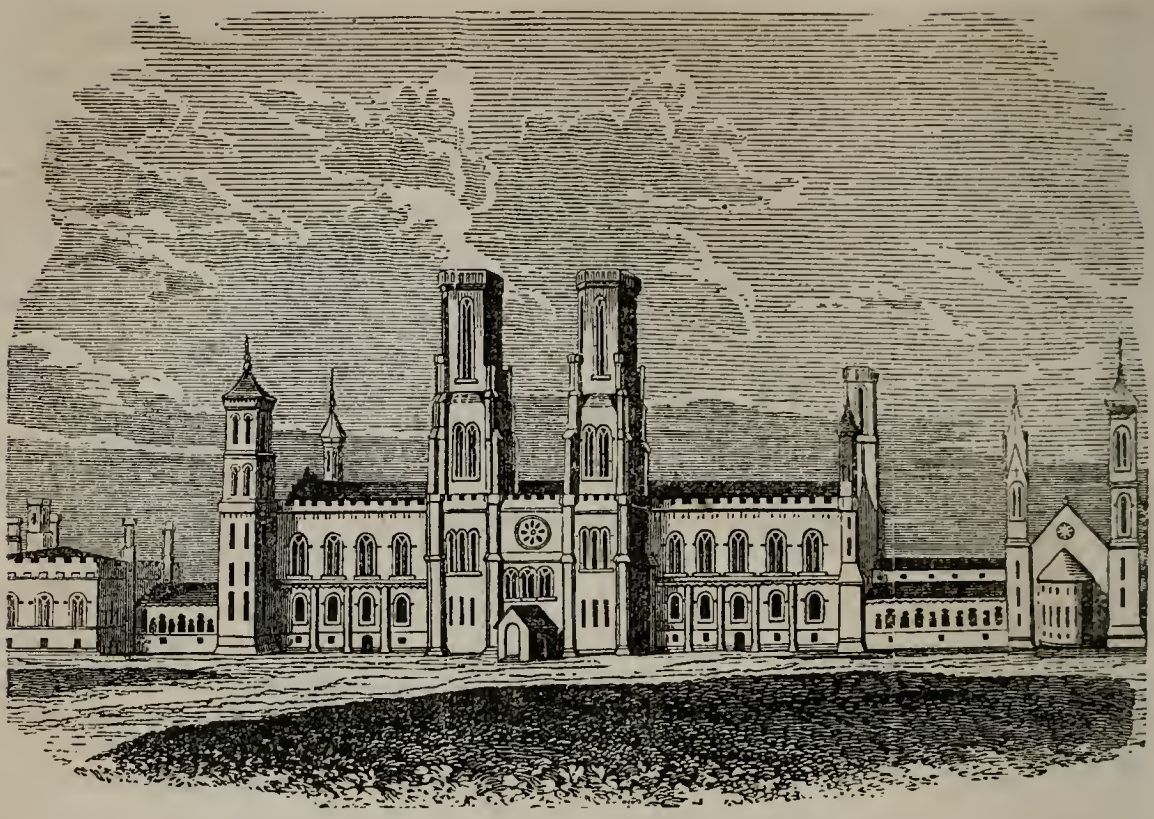
THE SENATE CHAMBER, WASHINGTON.

part and two wings. The width of the whole building was 352 feet, and depth of the wings 121 feet, and occupied an area of one and a half acres. But, in the addition of new states to the Union, with the consequent increase of congressional representation, the Capitol, on its original plan, has finally become too limited, and an enlargement was commenced in 1851, and is being rapidly pressed to completion. The above engraving is designed to represent this edifice, as it will appear when the additions shall have been finished. These additions will consist of two wings at the ends of the building, with which they will be connected by corridors, or piazzas, 44 feet long, and 50 feet wide. The wings will each be 143 feet by 238, exclusive of porticoes and steps; and the entire length of the building, when completed, will be 751 feet, and the area it covers 153,112 square feet, or over $3\frac{1}{2}$ acres. Beneath the dome is the rotunda, a spacious apartment, 75 feet high, and 95 feet in diameter. On its walls the magnificent national paintings of Trumbull, Chapman, Weir, and Vanderlyn, are hung. The room is also adorned with basso-relievo groups, representing prominent events in American history. The senate-chamber is in the north wing, and the hall of the house of representatives in that on the south. Under the senate-chamber is the room where the supreme court sits. These apartments are all richly furnished, and ornamented with statuary and paintings.

The President's House is a noble and spacious edifice, also of white freestone. It is 170 feet long, and 86 feet wide, with Ionic pilasters, comprehending two lofty stories, with a stone balustrade. The north front is ornamented with a portico, sustained by four Ionic columns, with three projecting columns, affording a shelter for carriages to drive under. The garden, or southern front, is embellished by a circular colonnade of six Ionic columns. The interior of the President's House possesses one superb reception-room, commonly known as the "east room," and two oval drawing-rooms, one in each story, of very beautiful proportions. The house stands in an enclosed area of some twenty acres, and commands, from its balcony, one of the loveliest prospects in the country.

Near the President's House are the buildings occupied by the state, treasury, war, and navy departments. The United States Treasury is 300 feet long, with a wing in the rear of 100 feet. Along the front is a colonnade, composed of 23 columns, of massive proportions. The General Postoffice is a splendid marble building, with two wings, and adorned with large fluted marble columns. The Patent-Office is a spacious and noble looking building. The models of such inventions as receive a patent-right are here placed on exhibition, and form an interesting development of the genius of our country.

Washington Monument.—The most prominent and imposing object of this colossal structure will be the obelisk shaft rising through the centre to the height of 600 feet, 70 feet square at the base, and 40 at the top. Around this shaft, elevated on a terrace, or platform, 20 feet high and 300 feet square, is to be erected a vast rotunda, supported by 30 massive columns, 12 feet in diameter, and 45 feet high; enclosing a gallery 50 feet wide, 60 feet high, and 500 feet in circumference. Above the colonnade will be an entablature 20 feet high, surmounted by a balustrade 15 feet high, making an elevation of 100 feet for the rotunda, or colonnaded building. On the top, over the great gallery, and enclosed by the balustrade, will be a grand terrace around the great shaft, 700 feet in circumference, and *outside* of the balustrade a walk, or gallery, 6 feet wide, and 750 in circumference. The entrance, and passage to the grand terrace, will be by a railway of easy ascent, encircling the great shaft. The erection of this monument is steadily progressing, and it has already reached a considerable altitude. The several states of the Union, and many associations, have each prepared a stone, bearing an appropriate inscription, to be placed in the monument.



THE SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION.

The Smithsonian Institution, founded by the munificent bequest of an English gentleman, after whom it is named, to the American government, for the advancement of knowledge among men, is one of the finest specimens of architecture in the world. It consists of a centre, 50 by 200 feet, with two connecting ranges, 60 by 47 feet, and an east wing 45 by 75 feet. The whole is surmounted by several towers. The central building contains in the first story the library, 90 by 50 feet, and the principal lecture-room. The second story contains the museum, 200 by 50 feet. The west wing contains the gallery of art, 65 feet long; the east wing, the chemical lecture-room, 45 by 75 feet, and laboratory. The extreme length of the building is about 450 feet, with a breadth in the centre of over 100 feet. The centre building rises 60 feet, and with its principal towers 150 feet; the wings from 30 to 40 feet high, and their towers of various heights, from 80 to 100 feet. The style of architecture selected is the later Norman, or rather Lombardian, as it prevailed in the twelfth century, immediately preceding the introduction of the Gothic.

The manufactures of Washington are by no means contemptible; and its trade with the surrounding country, is facilitated by the Chesapeake and Ohio canal, which extends to Cumberland, Maryland, on the Potomac river.

The Washington Branch railroad connects the city with Baltimore; and the Washington and Wilmington line, through Virginia and North Carolina, diverges from this point.

The population in 1800 was 3,210; in 1810, 8,208; in 1820, 13,247; in 1830, 18,827; in 1840, 23,364; in 1850, 40,001.

Georgetown is separated from Washington, as before remarked, by Rock creek, and is distant from the Capitol about three miles. It is beautifully located, the ground on which the town stands rising to a considerable height above the Potomac, upon which it fronts. The scenery around is varied and pleasant; and on the west stand the picturesque and rocky hills, which here begin to change the aspect of the river's banks. The public buildings and private

dwellings have a substantial appearance. The Roman catholic college and the churches are especially magnificent. The Chesapeake and Ohio canal commences at Georgetown.

Georgetown was formerly a place of considerable business and manufactures; but its progress of late years has not kept pace with that of many other towns. Its population has been almost stationary for the last twenty years: in 1830 it was 7,350; in 1840, 7,312; and in 1850, 8,366.

VIRGINIA.*

Virginia, popularly known as the "Old Dominion," is situated between 36° 33′ and 40° 43′ north latitude, and 75° 25′ and 83° 40′ west longitude from Greenwich, and is bounded north by Ohio, Pennsylvania, and Maryland; northeast by Maryland, from which it is separated by the Potomac; east by the Atlantic; south by North Carolina and Tennessee; west by Kentucky, from which it is separated by the Cumberland mountains and Big Sandy river; and northwest by Ohio, from which it is separated by the river Ohio. Its superficial area is 61,352 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The face of the country of this state, though exhibiting but little grandeur, is greatly diversified, and in some parts is rich and pleasing, in the continued outline of hill, valley, river, and plain. The soil, too, is as varied as the surface, as every grade of fertility and sterility is to be met with, from the richest to the most barren. Virginia may be divided into four zones, essentially differing from each other. The first, which extends from the coast to the head of tide-water, at Fredericksburg, Richmond, &c., over 100 miles, is low and flat, in some places fenny, in others sandy, and on the margin of rivers the soil is composed of a rich loam. The second division extends from the head of tide-water to the Blue ridge. Near the former the surface is level; higher up the streams it becomes undulating and swelling; and as we approach the mountain it is often broken and abrupt. The soil is divided into sections, unequal in quality, running parallel to each other, and extending quite across the state. The parallel of Chesterfield, Henrico, Hanover, &c., is thin and sandy, and except on the borders of the rivers, is unproductive. That of Goochland, Cumberland, Prince Edward, Halifax, &c., is generally fertile. Fluvanna, Buckingham, Campbell, Pittsylvania, again, are poor; and Culpeper, Orange, Albemarle, Bedford, &c., are rich, though frequently consisting of a stony, broken soil, reposing on a substratum of tenacious and red-colored clay. The third division embraces the valley between the Blue ridge and the great North Shenandoah and Branch mountain, and the Allegany chain, which, with little interruption, extends from the Potomac to Carolina and Tennessee. The surface of the valley, in some instances, is broken by sharp, solitary mountains, detached from the general chain, the flanks of which are nearly bare, or but thinly covered with stunted pines. The soil in the valley consists of a rich mould, formed on a bed of limestone. The fourth division extends from the Alleganies to the river Ohio, and is composed of a country wild and broken, in some parts fertile, but generally barren or poor. The surface is uneven and hilly, but the soil of a great proportion of Randolph and the adjacent counties, in the northwest part of the state, is excellent, and well adapted for grazing.

* So named, by Sir Walter Raleigh, in honor of Queen Elizabeth.

VIRGINIA
Scale of Miles
10 20 30
NORTHERN PART OF VIRGINIA
OHIO
PENNSYLVANIA
MARYLAND
DELAWARE
KENTUCKY
TENNESSEE
NORTH CAROLINA
Ohio River
Wheeling
Elizabeth T.
MARSHALL
MONONGALIA
Morgan T.
WETZEL
Fairmont
King wood
Middlebourne
TYLER
MARION
PRESTON
Potomac R.
Romney
MORGAN
Martinsburg
Berkeley Springs
Harpers Ferry
Baltimore
Marietta
West Union
HARRISON
TAYLOR
Harrisville
Clarksburg
Parkersburg
DODDRIDGE
WOOD
HAMPSHIRE
Winchester
FREDERICK
Charlestown
Berryville
Leesburg
ERICK
CLARKE
LOUDON
ANNAPOLIS
DOVER
Dentown
Moorefield
BARBOUR
Weston
Philippa
HARDY
Woodstock
Front Royal
WASHINGTON
Alexandria
Mt. Vernon
Elizabeth
Kanawha R.
DeKalb
LEWIS
Gallipolis
Point Pleasant
Ripley
JACKSON
WIRT
GILMER
Beverly
Cheat R.
Sutton
MASON
PUTNAM
C.H.
SHENANDOAH
PENDLETON
Frankfin
LETON
Washington
Warrenton
Fauquier
PRINCE WILLIAM
FAIRFAX
C.H.
Burlington
Guyandotte
Barboursville
CABELL
Charleston
Kanawha R.
Elk R.
BRAXTON
ROCKINGHAM
Harrisonburg
Fairfax
PEPPER
Madison
STAFFORD
C.H.
Port Tobacco
Potomac Riv.
Trout Hill
Ballards V.
Coal R.
Summersville
NICHOLAS
POCAHONTAS
Hunters V.
Staunton
Weyers Cave
Summers V.
GREENE
C.H.
ORANGE
Gordons V.
SPOTSYLVANIA
C.H.
Fredericksburg
KING GEORGE
Princess Anne
Fayette V.
FAYETTE
GREENBRIER
Lewisburg
Spa
Warm Springs
Hot Springs
BATH
Virginia University
Charlottesville
CAROLINE
Rappahannock R.
Dowling Green
WESTMORELAND
RICHMOND
ESSEX
MIDDLESEX
LANCASTER
NUMBERLAND
Heathsville
BOONE
C.H.
LOGAN
C.H.
Berkley Springs
RALEIGH
Bluestone
White Sulphur Spr.
Greenbrier
Covington
ROCKBRIDGE
NELSON
ALBEMARLE
Palmyra
FLUVANNA
Lexington
Nat. Bridge
James R.
BUCKINGHAM
Maysville
AMHERST
GOOCHLAND
HENRICO
KING WILLIAM
KING QUEEN
NEW KENT
CHARLES CITY
JAMES CITY
YORK R.
GLOUCESTER
MATHEWS
C.H.
Drummond T.
Big Sandy R.
Guyandotte R.
C.H.
WYOMING
Princeton
Union
Red Sulphur Spr.
Sweet Spr.
MONROE
BOTETOURT
Fincastle
ROANOKE
Liberty
Lynchburg
C.H.
Concord
APPOMATTOX
POWHATAN
Scottsville
CUMBERLAND
CHESTERFIELD
C.H.
FIELD
Appomattox R.
Eastville
NORTHAMPTON
Parisburg
Salem
BEDFORD
AMELIA
PRINCE EDWARD
C.H.
CAMPBELL
NOTTOWAY
C.H.
Petersburg
Morgan V.
PRINCE GEORGE
C.H.
James T.
SURRY
C.H.
Williamsburg
York T.
ELIZABETH CITY
Hampton
C. Charles
C. Henry
MONTGOMERY
PULASKI
Christiansburg
Newbern
Rocky Mount
Staunton R.
Marysville
LUNENBURG
C.H.
DINWIDDIE
C.H.
Smithfield
ISLE OF WIGHT
Chuckatuck
Norfolk
Portsmouth
Jefferson ville
RUSSELL
Clinch R.
Tyhewhite
Lebanon
SMYTH
Abingdon
Marion
FLOYD
Jacksonville
FRANKLIN
PITT SYL
Competition
HALIFAX
Lawrenceville
Boydton
BRUNSWICK
Jerusalem
SUSSEX
C.H.
SOUTHAMPTON
Newsoms
Suffolk
NANSEMOND
PRINCESS ANNE
C.H.
The Wash
Dis. Swamp
Jonesville
Estillville
WASHINGTON
Greensville
SCOTT
CARROLL
Hillsville
Taylorsville
HENRY
Martinsville
Banister
Dan R.
MECKLENBURG
Hicksford
Roanoke R.
GRAYSON
PATRICK
Danville
Longitude West from Washington
Allegheny Mts.
Blue Ridge
Shenandoah R.
Potomac R.
James R.
Roanoke R.
Cheat R.
Kanawha R.
Ohio River

NATURAL BRIDGE, OVER CEDAR CREEK.

Mountains.—The Allegany range, including its numerous ridges, covers the whole middle sections of the state. Among the local names, beside the Blue ridge, may be mentioned the Cumberland, Great North Shenandoah, Branch, Great Flat Top, Iron, and Cacapon mountains.

Rivers, Lakes, and Bays.—The principal rivers are the Potomac, James,* Shenandoah, Rappahannock, Pamunky, Mattapony, York, Rivanna, Elizabeth, Appomattox, Nottoway, Staunton, Meherrin, Ohio, Great Kanawha, Sandy, Little Kanawha, Cheat, and Monongahela. Drummond lake lies in the Dismal swamp, which serves as a feeder to the main trunk of the Dismal Swamp canal. The lower part of Chesapeake bay lies wholly in this state. Among the lesser bays are the Pokomoke, Sinepuxent, and Mob Jack.

Islands.—Along the coast there is a long chain of low, flat islands, the chief of which are, Wallop's, Matomkin, Cedar, Paramore's, Hog, Prout's, and Smith's.

Climate.—The climate of the tide-water region is generally healthy, except in the months of August, September, and October, during which it is hot and moist, and bilious complaints or intermittents prevail. As we approach the Blue ridge, the inhabitants are more robust and healthy than in any other part of the state. West of the mountains, the climate is salubrious and cool.

Cities and Chief Towns.—The city of Richmond is the capital. Alexandria and Fredericksburg are cities. The other populous towns are Lynchburg, Norfolk, Portsmouth, Petersburg, Staunton, Wheeling, Winchester, and Williamsburg. Wheeling is situated at the highest point of steamboat navigation on the Ohio river, and where the great national road over the Alleganies meets the river.

Productive Resources.—The principal products of this state are horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, butter, cheese, wine, sugar, wax, silk, cotton, wool, hemp, flax, tobacco, rice, wheat, rye, barley, oats, buckwheat, po-

* The above engraving of the "Natural Bridge," over Cedar creek, a branch of James river, is one of the most extraordinary curiosities in the country. It is an irregular rock, spanning a chasm of over 200 feet in depth, and from 60 to 90 feet in width, affording a public and commodious passage over a valley, which can not be crossed elsewhere for a considerable distance. Under the bridge, thirty feet above the water, a portion of the letters G. W. may yet be seen, carved in the rock. When Washington was a young man, he climbed up thither, to leave the record of his name. Another natural curiosity is "Weyer's cave," in Augusta county, which extends a mile, presenting a series of spacious apartments, encrusted with beautiful crystals and stalactites.

tatoes, and Indian corn. Of the fossil and mineral resources, gold, copper, iron, lead, coal, marble, limestone, and salt, are the most important. But the most valuable are iron, coal, and salt. The belt of country in which gold is found is in the county of Spottsylvania, and the regions adjacent.—The coal fields are very extensive, anthracite being found on the easterly side of the Alleganies, and bituminous on the western. Salt springs occur on the banks of the Great Kanawha, where salt is manufactured in great abundance.

Manufactures.—Iron ranks first among the manufactures of Virginia, embracing machinery, firearms, hardware, cutlery, &c. Cotton and woollen manufactures rank next, in which about $2,500,000 is invested. In the manufacture of tobacco, about $2,000,000 is invested.

Railroads and Canals.—There are about 700 miles of railroad in operation in Virginia, and more in process of construction. The most important canals in the state are, the James River and the Kanawha canal, reaching from Richmond to Lynchburg, 146 miles, and the Dismal Swamp canal, 23 miles.

Commerce.—The foreign exports and imports of Virginia amount to about $5,000,000 annually. The domestic exports and imports amount to about $25,000,000 annually. The principal articles of domestic export are tobacco and flour. The shipping owned in the state is about 60,000 tons.

Population.—In 1790, 748,308; in 1800, 880,200; in 1810, 974,642; in 1820, 1,065,379; in 1830, 1,211,405; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows :—

EASTERN VIRGINIA.

Counties.	1850.	1840.
Accomac	17,890	17,096
Albemarle	25,800	22,924
Appomatox	9,193	new co.
Amherst	12,699	12,576
Amelia	9,770	10,320
Alexandria	10,008	new co.
Brunswick	13,894	14,346
Bedford	24,080	20,203
Buckingham	13,837	18,786
Culpeper	12,282	11,393
Cumberland	9,751	10,399
Charlotte	13,055	11,595
Caroline	18,456	17,813
Chesterfield	17,489	17,148
Charles City	5,200	4,774
Campbell	23,245	21,030
Dinwiddie	25,118	22,558
Essex	10,206	11,309
Elizabeth City	4,586	3,706
Fauquier	20,868	21,877
Franklin	17,430	15,832
Fairfax	10,682	9,370
Fluvanna	9,487	8,812
Greene	4,400	4,232
Greenville	5,639	6,366
Goochland	10,352	9,760
Gloucester	10,527	10,715
Henrico	43,572	33,076
Hanover	15,153	14,968
Halifax	25,962	25,936
Henry	8,872	7,335
James City	4,020	3,679
Isle of Wight	9,353	9,972
King and Queen	10,319	10,862
King George	5,971	5,927
King William	8,779	9,258
Louisa	16,691	15,433
Lunenburg	11,692	11,055
Lancaster,	4,708	4,628
Loudoun	22,079	20,431
Madison	9,331	8,107
Mecklenburg	20,630	20,724
Matthews	6,714	7,442
Middlesex	4,394	4,392
Northumberland	7,346	7,924
Nansemond	12,283	10,795
Northampton	7,498	7,715
New Kent	6,064	6,230
Nottoway	8,437	9,719
Nelson	12,758	12,287
Norfolk	33,036	27,569
Orange	10,007	9,125
Patrick	9,609	8,032
Pittsylvania	28,796	26,398
Powhattan	8,178	7,924
Prince Edward	11,857	14,069
Prince George	7,596	7,175
Prince William	8,129	8,144
Princess Ann	7,669	7,285
Rappahannock	9,752	9,257
Richmond	6,448	5,969
Spottsylvania	14,911	15,161
Southampton	13,521	14,525
Stafford	8,044	8,454
Surry	5,679	6,480
Sussex	9,820	11,229
Warwick	1,546	1,456
Westmoreland	8,080	8,019
York	4,460	4,720
Total E. Virginia	856,698	806,942

WESTERN VIRGINIA.

Counties.	1850.	1840.
Alleghany	3,515	2,749
Augusta	24,610	19,628
Barbour	9,005	new co.
Bath	3,426	4,300
Berkeley	11,771	10,972
Brooke	5,054	7,948
Braxton	4,212	2,575
Boone	3,237	new co.
Botetourt	14,908	11,679
Cabell	6,299	8,163
Carroll	5,909	new co.
Clarke	7,352	7,353
Doddridge	2,750	new co.
Fayette	3,955	3,924
Floyd	6,458	4,453
Frederick	15,975	14,242
Giles	6,570	5,307
Gilmer	3,475	new co.
Grayson	6,677	9,087
Greenbrier	10,022	8,695
Hampshire	14,036	12,295
Hancock	4,050	new co.
Hardy	9,543	7,622
Harrison	11,728	17,669
Highland	4,227	new co.
Jackson	6,544	4,890
Jefferson	15,357	14,082
Kanawha	15,353	13,567
Lee	10,267	8,441
Lewis	10,031	8,151
Logan	3,620	4,309
Marion	10,552	new co
Marshall	10,138	6,937
Mason	7,539	6,777
Mercer	4,222	2,233
Monongalia	12,387	17,368
Monroe	10,304	8,422
Montgomery	8,359	7,405
Morgan	3,557	4 253
Nicholas	3,963	2,515
Ohio	18,006	13,357
Page	7,600	6,194
Pendleton	5,795	6,940
Pocahontas	3,598	2,922
Preston	11,708	6,866
Pulaski	5,118	3,739
Putnam	5,335	new co,
Raleigh	1,765	new co.
Randolph	5,245	6,208
Ritchie	3,902	new co.
Roanoke	8,477	5,499
Rockbridge	16,045	14,284
Rockingham	20,294	17,344
Russell	11,919	7,878
Scott	9,829	7,303
Shenandoah	13,768	11,618
Smyth	8,162	6,522
Taylor	5,367	new co.
Tazewell	9,942	6,290
Tyler	5,498	6,954
Warren	6,607	5,627
Washington	14,612	13,001
Wayne	4,760	new co.
Wetzel	4,284	new co.
Wirt	3,353	new co.
Wood	9,450	7,923
Wyoming	1,645	new co.
Wythe	12,024	9,375
Total W. Virginia	564,963	432,855

Total population of Virginia: In 1850, 1,421,661; in 1840, 1,239,797. Number of slaves in 1790, 203,427; in 1800, 345,796; in 1810, 392, 518; in 1820, 425,153; in 1830, 469,757; in 1840, 448,987; in 1850, 472,528.

Education.—The principal literary institutions of Virginia are, William and Mary college, at Williamsburg; Hampden Sidney college, in Prince Edward county; Washington college, at Lexington; the university, at Charlottesville; Randolph college, at Boylestown; Emory and Henry college, at Glade Spring; Rector college, in Taylor county; Bethany college, at Bethany; and Richmond college, at Richmond. There are, also, a military institute at Lexington; medical schools at Richmond, Charlottesville (attached to the university), and Winchester; law schools, attached to the university and William and Mary college, and theological seminaries in Fairfax and Prince Edward counties, and at Richmond. There are also about 500 academies, and 2,500 common schools in the state. The permanent literary fund of Virginia is over $1,500,000.

Government.—The legislative power is vested in a senate, of 50 members, chosen for four years, one half biennially, and a house of delegates, of 152 members, chosen biennially. The executive power is vested in a governor, elected by the people, for four years, who is ineligible for the succeeding term; and a lieutenant-governor, elected for a like term. The legislature meets biennially, at Richmond. A secretary of state, treasurer, and auditor, are elected by the assembly. The judiciary power is vested in a supreme court of appeals, district courts, and circuit courts, all the judges of which are elected by the people. The right of suffrage is extended to every white male citizen twenty-one years of age, who has resided two years in the state, and one year in the place where he offers to vote. Votes, in all elections, are *viva voce;* dumb persons may vote by ballot.

History.—The present state of Virginia embraces but a portion of the ancient "Virginia," as granted to Sir Walter Raleigh, in 1584, which included all the lands he should discover between the thirty-third and fortieth degrees of north latitude, and which name became finally restricted to what now constitutes this state. Under this charter Raleigh planted a colony on the island of Roanoke; but, after repeated trials and disasters, the patent was vacated, and the country was again left to the quiet possession of the Indians. The first permanent settlement in America, by the English, was made at Jamestown, in 1607, by 105 adventurers. A second charter was granted to the London company, in 1609, radically changing the constitution, and enlarging the territory of the colony along the coast, within the limits of 200 miles north and 200 miles south of Old Point Comfort; that is, from the southern limits of North Carolina to the northern boundary of Maryland, and extending westward from sea to sea. But so vague were the views of the company, or the adventurers, under this patent, that discord and wretchedness compelled the settlers to break up their establishment, in 1610. The year following, Sir Thomas Gates arrived with 300 emigrants, and assumed the government of the colony, which then numbered 700 men. In 1612, a third charter was granted to the London company; but the colony remained under anarchy and tyranny until 1619, when martial law was abolished, and the first provincial assembly was convened at Jamestown. In 1621, the company granted to their colony a "written constitution," which, with singular liberality, ordained that a general assembly, chosen by the people, should be convened annually, its acts to be subject to the supervision of the company in England. The acts of the company, also, were not binding, till ratified by the assembly. It established the right of trial by jury. These rights and privileges were ever after claimed by Virginia, and formed the basis of her civil freedom. In 1622, a general massacre of the English was attempted by the Indians, and 347 of them perished. The rest were saved by the timely warning of Pocahontas, daughter of Powhatan, the Indian king. She was like a preserving angel to the feeble settlement. In 1624, the London company was dissolved, and the colony was again subject to the crown. In 1644, another general massacre of the whites was attempted, but without

success, the blow having been fortunately averted by the skill, prudence, and courage of Captain John Smith, one of the most efficient men in the colony. During the commonwealth, under Cromwell, to the restoration of Charles II., in 1660, she was left almost entirely to her own independence. Her governors during this period were chosen by the burgesses, who were the representatives of the people. In 1673, Charles II. granted to Lord Culpeper, and the Earl of Arlington, "all the dominion of land and water called Virginia," for thirty-one years. Within two years after this event the representative system was virtually abolished, and the liberties of the people were otherwise seriously abridged. This, together with the pressure of increasing grievances, resulted in open rebellion, followed by Indian aggressions, which continued for four years. In 1677, Culpeper, after purchasing the rights of Arlington, was appointed governor over the colony for life, and Virginia became a proprietary government, which remained in force until 1684, when the grant was recalled, and Culpeper expelled from office. The remaining portion of the history of this state is marked with few incidents of importance, down to the period of the revolution, except those in the French and Indian war, between 1754 and 1763. In 1786, that part of Virginia now constituting the state of Ohio, was erected by act of Congress into the "Western Territory," the name of which was afterward changed to the "Territory northwest of the river Ohio." The same year, the district of Kentucky was also set apart, by act of Congress, into a new territory, but the separation from the "Old Dominion" did not take place before 1792. The first constitution of Virginia was adopted in 1776, which was revised and amended in 1830, and continued in operation till October, 1851, when a new one was adopted. The constitution of the United States was ratified in 1788. Motto of the seal, *Sic semper tyrannis:* "So be it ever to tyrants;" in allusion to the emblem on the seal of an Amazon, resting on a spear with one hand, and holding a sword in the other, with his foot on Tyranny, which is represented by a prostrate man, with a crown fallen from his head, a broken chain in his left hand, and a scourge in his right.

GOVERNORS AND PRESIDENTS UNDER THE COLONIAL GOVERNMENT.

Ed. M. Wingfield, Pres. Coun..1607
John Radcliffe, Pres. Council..1607
John Smith, President Council..1608
George Percy, Pres. Council...1610
Lord Delaware, Governor 1610
Sir Thomas Dale, Governor...1611
Sir Thomas Gates, Governor..1611
Sir Thomas Dale, Governor ...1614
George Yeardley, Governor...1616
Samuel Argall, Governor.....1617
Sir George Yeardley, Governor1618
Sir Francis Wyatt, Governor..1621
Sir George Yeardley, Governor1626
Francis West, Governor 1627
John Pott, Governor.....1628
Sir John Harvey, Governor....1629
John West, Governor.....1635
Sir John Harvey, Governor....1636
Sir Francis Wyatt, Governor..1639
Sir William Berkeley, Governor1641
Richard Kempe, Governor....1644
Sir William Berkeley, Governor1645
Richard Bennett, Governor....1652
Edward Digges, Governor.....1655
Samuel Mathews, Governor...1656
Sir William Berkeley, Governor1659
Francis Morrison, Governor...1661
Sir William Berkeley, Governor1662
Herbert Jeffreys, Lieut. Gov...1677
Sir Henry Chicheley, Dep. Gov.1678
Lord Culpeper, Governor.....1680
Nicholas Spencer, Pres. Coun..1683
Lord Howard, Governor.....1684
Nathaniel Bacon, Pres. Coun ..1688
Francis Nicholson, Lieut. Gov.1690
Sir Edmund Andros, Governor.1692
Francis Nicholson, Governor..1698
Edward Nott, Governor.....1705
Edmund Jennings, Governor..1706
Alexander Spotswood, D. Gov.1710
Hugh Drysdale, Dep. Governor.1722
Robert Carter, Pres. Council..1726
William Gouch, Governor.....1727
Thomas Lee.... { Presidents } 1749
Lewis Burwell. { of Council, }
Robert Dinwiddie, Governor..1752
Francis Fauquier, Dep. Gov...1758
John Blair, President Council..1767
Lord Botetonte, Governor.....1768
William Nelson, Pres. Council.1770
Lord Dunmore, Governor.....1772
Provisional Government.
Peyton Randolph, Pres. Conv..1775
Edmund Pendleton, Pres. Con.1775

GOVERNORS UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

Patrick Henry.....1776
Thomas Jefferson.....1779
Thomas Nelson.....1781
Benjamin Harrison.....1781
Patrick Henry.....1784
Edmund Randolph.....1786
Beverly Randolph.....1788
Henry Lee.....1791
Robert Brooke.....1794
James Wood.....1796
James Monroe.....1799
John Page.....1802
William H. Cabell.....1805
John Tyler.....1808
James Monroe.....1811
George W. Smith.....1811
James Barbour.....1812
Wilson C. Nicholas.....1814
James P. Preston.....1816
Thomas M. Randolph.....1819
James Pleasants.....1822
John Tyler.....1825
William B. Giles.....1826
John Floyd.....1829
Littleton W. Tazewell.....1833
W. Robertson, Acting Gov....1836
David Campbell..... 1836
Thomas W. Gilmer.....1839
J. Rutherford, Acting Governor1841
J. M. Gregory, Acting Govern.1842
James M'Dowell.....1842
William Smith.....1845
John B. Floyd.....1849
Joseph Johnson.....1852

NORTH CAROLINA.*

North Carolina is situated between 33° 53′ and 36° 33′ north latitude, and 75° 45′ and 84° west longitude from Greenwich, and is bounded north by Virginia, east and southeast by the Atlantic, south by South Carolina and Georgia, and west and northwest by Tennessee. Its superficial area is 43,800 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—This state, like South Carolina and Georgia, presents a great diversity of surface, soil, and climate. It may be physically divided into three zones; first, the flat sea border, including numerous small islands; second, the sand-hill zone, spreading by an indefinite outline between the sea border, and the third, a hilly and partly mountainous tract, beyond the lower falls of the rivers. The maritime section, which extends from 80 to 100 miles inland, is nearly a dead level, varied only by deeply-indented, though shallow sounds, and occasional openings in the immense forests of pine, with which it is covered, and extensive glades, marshes, or swamps. In the northeastern part, extending into Virginia, lies the Great Dismal swamp, thirty miles long, and ten broad, thickly wooded with pine, juniper, cypress, and in the drier portions with red and white oak. Between Albemarle and Pamlico sounds is the Alligator, or Little Dismal swamp, which contains a lake. Here the soil is generally sandy and poor, though on the banks of some of the streams, particularly those of the Roanoke, it is remarkably fertile. In other instances, there are ridges of oakland, of a dark-colored and fruitful soil. After traversing this tedious plain, we are relieved by the appearance of the sand-hills, in the middle section, which, in general, presents an indifferent soil. But the third, the hilly and mountainous section, abounds in excellent soil, pure fountain water, and salubrious air. Those portions of the state lying west of the mountains are also exuberantly fertile, and will richly reward the planter's toil.

Mountains.—The Blue ridge constitutes the main range through the western part of the state; but on most maps is made to represent the outer chain of the Appalachian system, as in the contiguous states. Strictly speaking, there are two other chains, between the Blue ridge and the ocean. Black mountain, in Yancey county, is the highest land in the United States, east of the Rocky mountains, being 6,476 feet above the level of the sea. Roan mountain is 6,038 feet high, and Great Father mountain 5,556 feet. The chain in the extreme western part of the state, in which Roan mountain is situated, is known by different names, as Smoky, Unica, Bald, Yellow Iron, and Stone mountains.

Rivers, Lakes, Bays, and Sounds.—The principal rivers are, the Chowan, Roanoke, Tar, Neuse, Cape Fear, Waccamaw, Lumber, Catawba, Broad, Yadkin, North, Pungo, Hiwassee, Pamlico, and the Little Tennessee. Lake Phelps, Alligator, Mattimuskeet, and Waccamaw, are situated in this state. The principal sounds and bays are, Pamlico and Albemarle sounds, and Onslow and Raleigh bays.

Islands and Capes.—The chief islands are, Roanoke, Smith's, Brodie's, Currituck, Hatteras, and Cove. Capes Lookout and Fear are much dreaded by mariners; and Hatteras is considered the most dangerous headland on the American coast.

Climate.—Like most of the other southern states, North Carolina is somewhat varied in its climate, occasioned by physical peculiarities of its different

* The Carolinas were so named by Ribault, in honor of Charles IX., of France

NORTH CAROLINA
Scale of Miles
20 40 60 80
Longitude West from Washington
East from Washington
KENTUCKY
VIRGINIA
TENNESSEE
GEORGIA
SOUTH CAROLINA
Jefferson V.
Marysville
Reams
Cape Henry
Norfolk
Portsmouth
Franklin
Mt. Pleasant
Jonesville
Abingdon
New R.
Greensville
Danville
Roanoke R.
Hicksford
Clinch R.
Blountsv.
Holston R.
Jonesboro
Dandridge
Jefferson
Pilot Mt.
Rockford
Huntsv.
Wilksboro
Lenoir
Burnsv.
Pleasant Gardens
Morganton
Statesv.
Ashville
Newton
Rutherfordton
Lincolnton
Shelby
Hendersonv.
Tryon
Franklin
Murphy
Yorkville
Greenville
Savannah R.
Saluda R.
Broad R.
Newberry
Columbia
Cheraw
Wateree R.
Gr. Pedee R.
Lynch's Cr.
Lit. Pedee R.
Kingstree
Wadesboro
Monroe
Rockingham
Fayetteville
Randalsv.
Lumberton
Elizabeth
Whitesville
Wilmington
Smithville
New Inlet
Cape Fear
Bogue Inl.
New R. Inl.
Topsail Inl.
Cape Lookout
Core Sd.
Pamlico Sd.
Pamlico R.
Bay R.
Neuse R.
Trent R.
Roanoke Inl.
Kenansv.
Clinton
Trenton
Newberne
Kingston
Waynesboro
Smithfield
Hollysp.
Averysboro
Dudley
Carthage
Johnsonv.
Liberty
Pittsboro
Ashboro
Chapel Hill
Hillsboro
Greensboro
Salem
Germantown
Mocksville
Lexington
Salisbury
Concord
Albemarle
Lincolnton
Charlotte
Milton
Yanceyv.
Oxford
Louisburg
Nashv.
Forestv.
Huntsville
Raleigh
Williamston
Tarboro
Plymouth
Washington
Columbia
Gatesv.
Edenton
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McDowell
Rutherford
Cleveland
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Haywood
Jackson
Macon
Cherokee
Clay
Graham
Swain
Buncombe
Henderson
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parts. In the lower districts, intermittents are frequent during the summer and autumn, and the countenances of the inhabitants often have a pale yellowish hue, occasioned by the prevalence of bilious disease. In winter, pleurisies are frequent, as well as inflammation of the lungs. In the western and hilly parts of the state the air is elastic, salubrious and pure, which renders the country as healthy as any part of the United States. The summers are hot, though the evenings are refreshing and cool. Autumn is temperate and serene; and in some years the winters are so mild, that autumn may be said to continue till spring. The winters in the mountains, however, are visited by frost and snow, and the rigors of the climate are nearly as severe at the north.

Chief Towns.—Raleigh is the seat of government. The other populous towns are, Fayetteville, Newbern, and Wilmington.

Productive Resources.—The great staples of the south, tobacco, cotton, and rice, are extensively cultivated. Other products are, silk, wool, lumber, turpentine, spirits of turpentine, resin, pitch, tar, hay, hemp, flax, wine, sugar, wheat, rye, barley, oats, buckwheat, potatoes, and Indian corn; also, horses, mules, neat cattle, swine, and poultry. Of the mineral resources, gold, coal, and iron, are the most important. The gold region lies on both sides of the Blue ridge, and extends to the eastward of the river Yadkin. It occurs in fine grains, in small masses, or lumps, weighing from one to two pounds, and in veins.

Manufactures.—North Carolina being an agricultural state, but little attention has been paid to manufactures. There are, however, about thirty cotton factories in the state, which consume about 5,000,000 pounds of cotton annually. There are also a few woollen factories. Other manufactures are, paper, leather, furniture, cutlery, carriages, &c., though none of them are carried on to any great extent.

Railroads and Canals.—There are some 600 miles of railroads in operation and under construction, in North Carolina. The principal roads completed at present are, the Raleigh and Gaston, 87 miles, and the Wilmington and Weldon, 167 miles, which connect the towns indicated by their titles. The only canals wholly within the state are, the Weldon, extending around the falls of the Roanoke, 12 miles, and a short one connecting Harlow and Clubfoot creeks.

Population.—In 1790, 393,751; in 1800, 478,103; in 1810, 555,500; in 1820, 638,829; in 1830, 737,987; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows:—

Counties.	1850.	1840.
Alamance	11,444	new co.
Alexander	5,220	new co.
Anson	13,489	15,077
Ashe	8,777	7,467
Beaufort	13.816	12,225
Bertie	12.851	12,175
Bladen	9,767	8,022
Brunswick	7.272	5,265
Buncombe	13.425	10,084
Burke	7,772	15,799
Cabarrus	9,747	9,259
Caldwell	6.317	new co.
Camden	6.049	5.663
Carteret	6,803	6,591
Caswell	15.269	14,693
Catawba	8,862	new co.
Chatham	18.449	16.242
Chowan	6.721	6,690
Cleaveland	10,396	new co.
Columbus	5.909	3.941
Craven	14,709	13,438
Cumberland	20.610	15,284
Currituck	7,236	6,703
Cherokee	6,838	3.427
Duplin	13,514	11,182
Davie	7,866	7,574
Davidson	15,320	14,606
Edgecomb	17,189	15,708
Franklin	11,713	10,980
Forsythe	11,168	new co.
Gates	8,426	8,161
Granville	21,249	18,817
Greene	6,619	6,595
Guilford	19,754	19,175
Gaston	8,073	new co.
Halifax	16,589	16,865
Haywood	7,074	4,975
Henderson	6,853	5,129
Hertford	8,142	7,484
Hyde	7,636	6,458
Iredell	14,719	15,685
Johnston	13,726	10.599
Jones	5,038	4,945
Lenoir	7.828	7,605
Lincoln	7,746	25.160
Martin	8,307	7,617
M'Dowell	6,246	new co.
Mecklenburg	13,914	18,273
Montgomery	6,872	10,780
Moore	9,342	7,988
Macon	6,389	4,869
Nash	10,657	9,047
New Hanover	17,668	13,312
Northampton	13,335	13,369
Onslow	8,283	7,527
Orange	17,055	24,356
Pasquotank	8,950	8,514
Perquimans	7,331	7,346
Person	10,781	9,790
Pitt	13,397	11,806
Randolph	15,832	12,875
Richmond	9,818	8,909
Rowan	13,870	12,109
Robeson	12,826	10,370
Rockingham	14,495	13,442
Rutherford	13,550	19,202
Sampson	14,585	12,157
Stokes	9,206	16,265
Surry	18,443	15,079
Stanley	6,922	new co.
Tyrrell	5,133	4.657
Union	10,051	new co.
Wake	24,887	21,118
Warren	13,912	12,929
Washington	5,666	4.525
Wilkes	12,099	12,577
Watauga	3,400	new co.
Wayne	13,486	10,891
Yancey	8.205	5,962
Total	868,903	753,419

Number of slaves in 1790, 100,572; in 1800, 133,296; in 1810, 168,824; in 1820, 295,017; in 1830, 235,601; in 1840, 245,817; in 1850, 288,412.

COMMERCE.—North Carolina has but a limited foreign commerce, its imports and exports being less than a million annually. Its coasting trade, however, is considerable. The shipping owned within the state is about 50,000 tons.

EDUCATION.—The literary institutions are, a university at Chapel Hill, Davidson college, in Mecklenberg county, and Wake-Forest college. There are about 200 academies and 1,500 common schools in the state.

HISTORY.—North Carolina embraces a portion of the ancient territory of Florida, as named by Ponce de Leon, in 1512, and was, more recently, a portion of South Virginia, as granted by James I., of England, in 1606. It was within the limits of this state that Sir Walter Raleigh's unsuccessful attempts at settlement were made, in 1584 to 1590. In about the year 1630, another grant was made to Sir Robert Heath, of the tract lying between the thirtieth and thirty-sixth degrees of north latitude, which was erected into a province, under the name of "Carolina." No settlements were made under this grant, however, and consequently it was declared void. The first permanent settlement in the region now called North Carolina was made on the east bank of the river Chowan, near the present village of Edenton, in about the year 1650, by a company of emigrants from Virginia, who fled from religious persecution. In 1661, a small English colony, from Massachusetts, purchased a tract of land, on Cape Fear river, from the Indians, and formed a settlement on Old Town creek, a few miles below Wilmington; but the enterprise was abandoned, from the hostility of the Indians. Two years later the province was granted, by Charles II., to Lord Clarendon and seven others, and a government was established over the infant settlement on the Chowan, which was called the "Albemarle County Colony," in compliment to one of the proprietors, the duke of Albemarle. In 1665, their grant was enlarged, embracing the territory between 31° and 36½° north latitude, extending westward to the South sea. In 1667, a new settlement was established on Cape Fear river, near the abandoned site of the New England colony, called "Clarendon county," which was again surrendered to the Indians before the year 1690. In 1707, a company of French protestants, who had previously settled in Virginia, removed to Carolina, and two years later were followed by 100 German protestant families, who were driven from their homes by religious persecution. In 1729, the crown of England purchased the whole of Carolina, which had hitherto been under the superintendence of the same board, for £17,500; and the king divided it into two provinces, "North" and "South," which have ever since been continued separate. A convention, or a kind of Congress, composed of military officers, assembled at Charlotte, in the county of Mecklenburg, in 1775, and declared the people independent of British rule. In 1776, this state formed a constitution, which, with subsequent modifications, continues to the present time. In 1789, it ratified the constitution of the United States and was admitted into the Union as an independent state.

PRESIDENTS AND GOVERNORS UNDER THE PROPRIETARY GOVERNMENT.

William Drummond, Governor 1663
Samuel Stevens, Governor 1667
James Cartwright, Pres. of Co.1675
William Miller, Pres. of Coun..1677
John Culpepper, Pres. of Coun.1678
John Harvey, Pres. of Council.1680
John Jenkins, Governor.....1681
John Wilkinson, Governor....1682
Seth Sothel, Governor.....1683
Philip Ludwell, Governor.....1689
Alex. Livingston, Dep. Gov....1693
Thomas Harvey, Dep. Gov....1695
Henderson Walker, Pr. of Co..1609
Robert Daniel, Pres. of Coun..1704
Thomas Carey, Pres. of Coun..1705
William Glover, Pres. of Coun..1709
Edward Hyde, Governor.....1710
Thomas Pollock, Pres. of Coun.1712
Charles Eden, Governor.....1714
Thomas Pollock, Pres. of Coun.1722
William Reed, Pres. of Coun..1723
George Burrington, Governor .1724
Sir Richard Everard, Govern..1725

Royal Governors.

Sir Richard Everard.....1729
Gabriel Johnston 1734
Matthew Rowan.....1753
Arthur Dobbs 1754
William Tryon.....1766
Joseph Martin.....1773

GOVERNORS UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

Richard Caswell.....1777
Abner Nash.....1780
Thomas Burke.....1782
Alexander Martin....1784
Richard Caswell.....1785
Samuel Johnston....1788
Alexander Martin ...1790
Richard D. Spaight..1793
Samuel Ashe.....1796
Benjamin Williams..1799
James Turner.....1802
Nathaniel Alexander.1805
Benjamin Williams..1807
David Stone.....1808
Benjamin Smith.....1810
William Hawkins....1811
William Miller.....1814
John Branch.....1817
Jesse Franklin.....1820
Gabriel Holmes.....1821
Hutchins G. Burton..1824
James Iredell.....1827
John Owen.....1828
Montford Stokes.....1830
David L. Swain.....1832
Edward B. Dudley...1836
J. M. Morehead.....1839
William A. Graham..1845
Charles Manly 1849
David S. Reid.....1851

Government.—The legislative power is vested in a senate of 50, and a house of commons of 120 members, both elected biennially, on the first Thursday in August, by the people. The executive power is vested in a governor, elected biennially by the people, who is not eligible for more than two terms in succession. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, of three judges, and a superior, or circuit court, of seven judges, besides inferior courts. The judges of the supreme and superior courts are elected by the legislature, and hold office during good behavior. All free white males, of 21 years of age, who have resided in the state one year, are entitled to vote for governor, and members of the lower house; to qualify to vote for senators, a freehold of fifty acres, of six months' possession, is also required.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

South Carolina lies between 32° 2′ and 35° 10′ north latitude, and 78° 24′ and 83° 30′ west longitude from Greenwich; and is bounded north by North Carolina, southeast by the Atlantic, and westerly by Georgia, from which it is separated by Savannah river. Its superficial area is 28,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—This state, like North Carolina and Georgia, presents a great diversity of surface, as well as of soil and climate, and may also be physically divided into three zones. The first, bordering on the Atlantic, is that of sea-sand alluvion, below the lower falls of the rivers, about sixty miles wide, and in most places penetrated by the tide. The second commences along or near the lower falls and primitive ledge. The sea-sand zone is very nearly a dead plain, but at its interior margin hills begin to appear, springs of water become plentiful, the soil meliorates, and the whole face of nature assumes an agreeable diversity of surface. The third, or what may be called the mountain zone, though but little of it is really mountainous, comprises the northwestern part of the state, and lies based on the Blue Ridge chain. The first of these zones, which includes the "Sea islands," is covered with extensive tracts of pine "barrens," open plains without wood, savannas, swamps, and salt marsh, presenting the most fertile and the most sterile extremes of soil. The second zone displays, amid a series of hills, bold, swelling, and varied in their form, a rapid succession of rich cotton lands, meadows, orchards, and fields of small grain, interluded by extensive forests, barrens, and swamps. As we approach the mountainous zone, we are gratified by the pleasant alternation of hill and dale; the lively verdure of the hills is contrasted with the deeper tints of the forests which decorate their sides; and in the valleys, broad rivers roll their waters through the varied beauties of the luxuriant and cultivated fields. From these delightful regions the surface still continues to rise, till we reach the western limit of the state.

Mountains.—The Blue Ridge, or Appalachian chain, traverses this state in its northwest part, of which Table mountain is the most conspicuous. The other mountains are Olenoy, Oconee, Paris, Glassy's, Hog-Back, and King's.

Rivers, Bays, and Sounds.—The principal rivers are, the Savannah, Pedee, Black, Santee, Cooper, Ashley, Stono, Edisto, Ashepos, Catawba, Coosaw, Broad, and Waccamaw. Besides Bull's and Winyaw bays, this state contains numerous estuaries, and sounds, the principal of which are, Port Royal and Georgetown entrances, and Tyree and St. Helena sounds.

SOUTH CAROLINA
Scale of miles
20
40
60
TENNESSEE
GEORGIA
NORTH CAROLINA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
PICKENS
GREENVILLE
SPARTANBURG
UNION
YORK
CHESTER
LANCASTER
CHESTERFIELD
MARLBOROUGH
ANDERSON
LAURENS
FAIRFIELD
KERSHAW
DARLINGTON
MARION
ABBEVILLE
NEWBERRY
RICHLAND
COLUMBIA
SUMTER
HORRY
EDGEFIELD
LEXINGTON
ORANGEBURG
WILLIAMSBURG
GEORGETOWN
BARNWELL
CHARLESTON
COLLETON
BEAUFORT
Clayton
Pickensville
Pumpkin T.
Merritsville
Cowpens
Furnace
Hurricane
Spartanburg
Kings Mt.
Yorkville
Brattonsville
Greenville
Glenn Spr.
Unionville
Chesterville
Lancaster
Chesterfield C.H.
Cheraw
Bennetts V.
Fayetteville
Lumberton
Cape Fear R.
Pendleton
Anderson C.H.
Greenwood
Laurensville
Buckhead
Winnsboro
Sandton
Society Hill
Liberty Hill
Browns V.
Carnesville
Evergreen
Waterloo
Pagesville
Newberry
Taylors V.
Darlington
Gr. Pedee R.
Cokesburg
Abbeville
Cambridge
Saluda R.
Broad R.
Catawba R.
Camden
Keiths
Effingham
Willow Grove
Marion C.H.
Black Sw.
Wilmington
Savannah R.
Elberton
Vienna
Mt. Willing
Leesville
Lexington
Statesburg
Sumterville
Lynches C.
Athens
Edgefield C.H.
Ft. Motte
Fulton
Grahams Cross Rds.
Conwaboro
Cape Fear
Lewis Swash
Swash
Union Pt.
Hamburg
Aiken
St. Mathews
Santee R.
Kingstree
Planters V.
Angusta
Windsor
Orangeburg
James V.
Murrays P.O.
Warrenton
Blackville
Fine V.
Eutaw Springs
Georgetown
Savannah River
Barnwell C.H.
Midway
Branchville
Monks Corners
Winyaw Pt.
MILLEDGEVILLE
St. Georges
Santee R.
Erwinton
Summerville
Charleston
St. Romain
Holcomb
Kings Creek
Walterborough
Bulls Bay
Long I.
Collins X. Roads
Jacksonboro
Charleston Har.
Robertville
Gillisonville
Folly I.
Springfield
Beaufort
St. Helena Sound
Parisburg
Savannah
Savannah Entrance
Longitude West from Washington
35
34
33
6
5
3
2
1

Islands.—The coast is bordered by a chain of fine islands, the most important of which are, Port Royal, St. Helena, Edisto, Ladu's, Trench's, Hunting, and Racoon Keys.

Climate.—The climate along the seaboard is moist, very changeable, and, during summer and autumn, is extremely unhealthy. The middle region, particularly in winter and spring, is regarded as the most healthy part of the state. In short, all the districts of the upper country enjoy as salubrious a climate as is found in the Union.

Chief Towns.—Columbia is the seat of government. Charleston is a city. The other populous towns are, Beaufort, Camden, Georgetown, and Orangeburg.

Productive Resources.—The principal products of this state are, horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, sugar, wax, hay, lumber, pitch, tar, turpentine, cotton, wool, silk, tobacco, rice, wheat, rye, barley, oats, sweet potatoes, and Indian corn. Of the mineral and fossil resources of the state, gold is found in considerable abundance, but the "diggings" are less numerous than in Georgia and North Carolina. Marble, limestone, granite, oil and soap stone, iron and lead ores, talc, asbestos, plumbago, pyrites, ochres used for painting, potters' clay, and fullers' earth, also occur in greater or less abundance.

Manufactures.—The manufactures of South Carolina are limited in extent. There are about 20 cotton-mills, which consume about 4,000,000 pounds of cotton annually. There were, in 1850, over 1,400 manufacturing establishments of all kinds in the state.

Railroads and Canals.—The aggregate length of railroads in operation in the state is about 300 miles, and about the same amount in process of construction. The longest canal in the state is the Santee, from Charleston to Santee river, 22 miles. There are several other shorter ones, amounting in the aggregate to about 30 miles.

Commerce.—The foreign commerce of South Carolina is quite large, its exports and imports amounting to about $17,000,000 annually. The shipping owned in the state is about 40,000 tons. Charleston is the principal port, and enjoys about nine tenths of the commerce.

Education.—There are three colleges in South Carolina. The Charleston college, founded in 1785; the college of South Carolina, founded in 1804; and the Erskine college, in Abbeville district. There are three theological seminaries in the state. There is also a medical college at Charleston. There are about 1,000 public schools, and 200 academies, in various parts of the state.

Population.—In 1790, 249,073; in 1800, 345,591; in 1810, 415,715; in 1820, 502,741; in 1830, 581,185; in 1840 and 1850, by districts, as follows:—

Districts.	1850.	1840.	Districts.	1850	1840.	Districts.	1850.	1840.
Abbeville	32,318	29.351	Fairfield	21,404	20.165	Newbury	20,143	18,350
Anderson	21,475	18,493	Georgetown	20,647	18,274	Orangeburg	23.582	18,519
Barnwell	26,608	21,471	Greenville	20,156	17,839	Pickens	16,904	14,356
Beaufort	38,805	35.794	Horrey	7,646	5,755	Richland	20,243	16,397
Charleston	72,805	82,661	Kershaw	14,473	12,281	Spartanburg	26,400	23,669
Chester	18,038	17,747	Lancaster	10,988	9,907	Sumter	33,220	27,892
Chesterfield	10,790	8,574	Laurens	23,407	21,584	Union	19,852	18,936
Colleton	39.505	25,548	Lexington	12,930	12,111	Williamsburg	12,447	10,327
Darlington	16,830	14,822	Marion	17.407	13,932	York	19,433	18,383
Edgefield	37,262	32,852	Marlboro'	10,789	8,408			
						Total	668,507	594,398

Number of slaves in 1790, 107,094; in 1800, 146,151; in 1810, 196,365; in 1820, 258,475; in 1830, 315,401; in 1840, 327,038; in 1850, 384.984.

History.—The state of South Carolina embraces a portion of the ancient territory of Florida, as first discovered by Ponce de Leon, in 1512; as well as a part of Carolina, as colonized by Coligni with Huguenots, in 1562–'65; or a part of Virginia, as granted to Sir Walter Raleigh, in 1584. In about the year 1630, another grant was made to Sir Robert Heath, of the tract lying between 30° and 36° north latitude, which was erected into a province, under the name

of "Carolina. As no settlements were made under this grant, the charter was declared void. In 1663, the province of Carolina was granted, by Charles II., to Lord Clarenden and seven others. Two years later the grant was enlarged, so as to comprise all the territory between 31° and 36½° north latitude, extending westward from sea to sea. In 1670, a small body of English emigrants, under William Sayle, commenced the settlement of Old Charleston, on the south side of Ashley river, which they called "Carteret County Colony," in honor of one of the proprietors. From this place they removed, in 1679, to the present site of Charleston.* In 1720, the proprietary government was thrown off, and that of the crown established. In 1729, after much controversy and difficulty between the proprietors and the crown, seven out of the eight sold all their claims to the soil and rents in both Carolinas to the king, for £17,500, and the provinces then became royal governments, entirely unconnected, under which they remained until the Revolution. South Carolina early resisted British oppression, and was one of the confederacy in 1776. It ratified the constitution of the United States, and was admitted into the Union as a sovereign state, in 1788. Mottoes of the seal, *Animis ophibusque parati :* "Ever ready in spirit and achievement." Reverse—*Dum spiro spero :* "While I live I hope."

GOVERNORS UNDER THE PROPRIETARY GOVERNMENT.

William Sayle.....1669	Seth Sothwell.....1690	Charles Craven.....1712	Thomas Broughton..1735
Joseph West.....1671	Philip Ludwell.....1692	Robert Daniel.....1716	William Bull.....1737
John Yeamans.....1671	Thomas Smith.....1693	Robert Johnson.....1719	James Glen.....1743
Joseph West.....1674	Joseph Blake.....1694	James Moore.....1719	William H. Littleton.1756
Joseph Morton.....1682	John Archdale.....1695	Arthur Middleton....1719	William Bull.....1760
Joseph West.....1684	Joseph Blake.....1606		Thomas Boone.....1762
Richard Kirk.....1684	James Moore.....1700	*Under the regal Governm't.*	William Bull.....1763
Robert Quarry.....1684	Nathaniel Johnson...1703	Francis Nicholson...1721	Charles Montague...1766
Joseph Morton.....1685	Edward Tynte.....1706	Arthur Middleton....1725	William Bull.....1769
James Colleton.....1686	Robert Gibbes.....1710	Robert Johnson.....1730	

GOVERNORS UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

John Rutledge.....1775	Charles Pinckney....1796	Andrew Pickens.....1816	Pierce M. Butler.....1836
Rawlins Lowndes....1778	Edward Rutledge....1798	John Geddes.....1818	Patrick Noble.....1838
John Rutledge.....1779	John Drayton.....1806	Thomas Bennet.....1820	B. K. Hennegan, Act.1840
John Matthews.....1782	James B. Richardson.1802	John L. Wilson.....1822	J. P. Richardson.....1840
Benjamin Guerard...1783	Paul Hamilton.....1804	Richard J. Manning..1824	James H. Hammond.1842
William Moultrie....1785	Charles Pinckney....1806	John Taylor.....1826	William Aiken.....1844
Thomas Pinckney....1787	John Drayton.....1806	Stephen D. Miller....1828	David Johnson.....1846
Charles Pinckney....1789	Henry Middleton....1810	James Hamilton.....1830	W. B. Seabrook.....1850
Arnoldus Vanderhost.1792	Joseph Alston.....1812	Robert Y. Hayne....1832	John H. Means.....1852
William Moultrie....1794	David R. Williams...1874	George M'Duffie.....1834	J. L. Manning.....1853

GOVERNMENT.—The governor is elected for two years, by a joint vote of both houses of the assembly. After having served one term, he is ineligible for the next four years. A lieutenant-governor is chosen in the same manner, and for the same period. The senate consists of 45 members, elected by districts for

CHARLESTON occupies a point of land formed by the confluence of Ashley and Cooper rivers, which together enter the ocean by a spacious and deep harbor, extending seven miles below the city. It is 120 miles southeast of Columbia, the state capital, and 540 miles from Washington. Four channels of different depths afford an entrance into the harbor, through a sandbar, which obstructs it; the deepest of these admit ships with sixteen feet draught. The harbor is defended by Fort Moultrie, on Sullivan's island, lying at its mouth, and by Forts Pinckney and Johnson. The city stands on ground somewhat elevated above tide-water, and may be said to resemble New York on a smaller scale. It is constructed with regularity and taste, and many rich and varied trees of southern climes lend their charms. Besides the city proper, there are populous suburbs, which afford fine sites for residences, and are identified with its growth and interests. Charleston may be considered as the metropolis of the southern Atlantic states, as New Orleans is of those on the Mexican gulf and the Mississippi. Into this basin flow many of the products of North Carolina and Georgia. Its foreign commerce is extensive and valuable, especially in cotton and rice, as is also its coasting trade; and packets, as well as splendid steamships, ply to New York and other maritime cities. The Santee canal connects the Santee with Cooper river, thus opening a communication from Columbia, the state capital, to Charleston.

The public buildings and institutions of this city indicate the wealth, intelligence, and liberality of the people. There are a number of banks, churches, and hotels, some of them splendid and costly. Other prominent buildings are, the customhouse, guard-house, exchange, city-hall, state citadel, almshouse, orphan asylum, jail, and college of Charleston. The literary and scientific institutions and libraries are generally respectable and flourishing. No city is more justly noted for hospitality and refinement. Its climate is more salubrious than that of most southern cities, affording a delightful and safe summer resort for the planters from the low country and West Indies, and a pleasant winter residence for people from the north. The great fire in 1837, by which 1,200 houses, covering one fifth of the city, were destroyed, retarded for a time its growth.

The South Carolina railroad extends to Augusta, on the Savannah, 137 miles, where it communicates with the Georgia railroad. At Branchtown, 62 miles from Charleston, the Columbia branch diverges to Camden and Columbia.

The population of Charleston in 1790 was 16,359; in 1800, 18,712; in 1810, 24,711; in 1820, 24,480; in 1830, 30,289; in 1840, 29,261; in 1850, 42,985.

References.
1 College of Charleston
2 City Hall
3 Court House
4 U.S. Court
5 Custom House & Post Office
6 Fire Proof Building
7 Guard House
8 Jail
9 Markets
10 Medical College
11 Rail Road Depot
12 Charleston Hotel
13 Planters Do.
14 Pavilion Do.
15 Merchants Do.
16 Victoria Do.
17 Mansion House
18 Gas Works
19 Alms House
20 High School
21 Marine Hospital
22 Ropers Hospital
23 Masonic Hall
24 Odd Fellows Hall
25 Bible Repository
26 Artesian Well
Town Creek
Cooper
Congress
Race
Shepherd
Line
Botgard
Spring
Cannon
Morris
Radcliffe
Warren
Vanderhorst
Duncan
Galhoun
Burns L.
George
Liberty
Society
Hazel
Pinckney
Hayne
Market
Clifford
Cumberland
Queen
Broad
Tradd
Short
Magazine
Wilson
Franklin
Mazyck
Archdale
Chalmers
Elliott
Church
Atlantic
E. Battery
S. Battery
Gibbes
Lamboll
Legare
Orange
Friend
Logan
Savage
New
Greenhill
Council
Pritchard
Inspection
Vernon
Laurens
Minority
Wall
Middle
Washington
Charlotte
Alexander
Chapel
Judith
Mary
South
Reid
Amherst
Columbus
Hanover
Wassau
Boone
Drake
Bay
Meeting
King
Ann
John
Hudson
Citadel
Henrietta
Coming
Green
College
Clebe
Smith
Pitt
Bull
Montague
Wentworth
Beaufain
Rutledge
Lynch
Gaussen
Doughty
Mill
Lucas
Presden
Bee
U.S. Arsenal
Ashley
Ashley River
Cooper River
Bay
East
Bay
Meeting
Church
Water
Atlantic
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
CHARLESTON

four years. The house of representatives consists of 124 members, apportioned among the several districts, according to the number of white inhabitants and taxation, and are elected for two years. The representatives and one half the senators are chosen every second year, in October. The chancellor and judges of the supreme court are chosen by the joint ballot of both houses of the assembly, and hold their offices during good behavior. Every free white male citizen, 21 years of age, who has resided in the state two years immediately preceding the election, and who is possessed of a freehold of 50 acres of land, or a town-lot, six months before the election; or not possessing this freehold, who shall have resided in the election district in which he offers to vote six months before the election, and have paid a tax of three shillings sterling to the support of the government, has the right of suffrage.

GEORGIA.*

Georgia, the most southern of the original thirteen states, lies between 30° 19′ and 35° north latitude and 80° 50′ and 85° 40′ west longitude from Greenwich; and is bounded north by North Carolina and Tennessee, northeast by Savannah river, which separates it from South Carolina, southeast by the Atlantic, south by Florida, and west by Alabama. Its superficial area is 61,500 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—This state occupies a large proportion of the great inclined plain, from which the peninsula of Florida protrudes, and down which several rivers flow into the Atlantic and the Mexican gulf. From the Atlantic border of this state, this acclivity gradually rises to an elevation of 1,200 feet above the level of the sea, without estimating the mountain ridges. Like the Carolinas, it may be divided into three zones. First, the flat sea-border, including numerous small islands; second, the sand-hill zone; and third, a hilly and partly mountainous tract, beyond the lower falls of the rivers. The soil on the islands, called *hummock land*, is very rich, producing the celebrated Sea-island cotton. The seacoast on the main land consists of a belt of salt marsh, four or five miles in width. In the rear of this margin commence the "pine barrens," which extend 60 to 90 miles from the ocean. The rivers and creeks are generally bordered with swamps, or marshes, which, at every tide, are either wholly or partially overflowed, for 15 or 20 miles from the coast. These constitute the principal rice plantations. Beyond the pine barrens the country becomes uneven, diversified with hills and mountains, of a strong rich soil. The northwestern part of the state is mountainous, and abounds in beautiful scenery. The soil of Georgia, though varied, is, a large proportion of it, productive. At a distance from the sea it changes from gray to red; in some places it is gravelly, but fertile; and farther back in the country its color is gradually deepened, till it becomes what is called the "mulatto soil," consisting of black mould and reddish earth. This is succeeded in its turn by a soil that is nearly black, and very rich. In the southwest portion of the state is Okefenokee swamp, about 170 miles in circumference.

Mountains.—This state is traversed on the north by a spur of the Alleganies, among which are Yonah and Currahee mountains. Pine mountain lies near the western boundary.

* Georgia was so called in honor of its royal grantor, George II., of England.

GEORGIA
Scale of miles
10 30 50 70
TENNESSEE
N. CAROLINA
SOUTH CAROLINA
ALABAMA
FLORIDA
G. OF MEXICO
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Knoxville
Athens
Tennessee R.
Chattanooga
Greenville
Yorkville
Newberry
Santa R.
Hamburg
Augusta
Savannah River
Savannah
Chattahoochee R.
Appalachicola R.
Appalachee Bay
Appalachicola
Suwanee R.
St. Johns R.
Alatamaha R.
Ogeechee R.
Oconee R.
Ocmulgee R.
Flint R.
St. Marys R.
Lon. West from Washington
DADE
Trenton
WALKER
La Fayette
MURRAY
GILMER
Spring Place
Elijay
UNION
Blairsville
RABUN
Clayton
Clarksville
HABERSHAM
Gold Mines
Dahlonega
LUMPKIN
CHATTOOGA
Summer V.
Rome
CASS
Cassville
CHEROKEE
Canton
FORSYTH
HALL
Gainesville
FRANKLIN
Carnesville
Danielsville
MADISON
ELBERT
Elberton
FLOYD
Cumming
Jefferson
JACKSON
PAULDING
Van Wert
COBB
Marietta
Lawrence V.
GWINNETT
Athens
CLARK
Lexington
Lincolnton
LINCOLN
Washington
WILKES
Decatur
WALTON
Monroe
OGLETHORPE
Campbellton
CARROLL
Carrollton
DEKALB
NEWTON
Covington
MORGAN
GREENE
Greensboro
TALLAFERRO
Crawfords V.
COLUMBIA
Applington
Augusta
Fayetteville
Mc Donough
Madison
Franklin
Newnan
HENRY
JASPER
Eatonton
Sparta
WARREN
RICHMOND
HEARD
COWETA
Jackson
BUTTS
Monticello
PUTNAM
HANCOCK
PIKE
Zebulon
MERRIWETHER
La Grange
Greenv.
Griffin
Forsyth
JONES
Clinton
BALDWIN
MILLEDGEVILLE
JEFFERSON
Louisville
Waynesboro
BURKE
TROUP
UPSON
Thomaston
MONROE
Sandersville
WILKINSON
WASHINGTON
Jacksonboro
Hamilton
HARRIS
TALBOT
Talbotton
CRAWFORD
Knoxville
BIBB
Macon
TWIGGS
Irwinton
EMANUEL
Swaynsboro
SCRIVEN
Marion
Dublin
Columbus
MUSCOGEE
Tazewell
MARION
MACON
Lanier
HOUSTON
Perry
LAURENS
BULLOCH
Statesboro
EFFINGHAM
Springfield
Hawkins V.
Travellers Rest
PULASKI
MONTGOMERY
Mt. Vernon
Reidsville
CHATHAM
Savannah
STEWART
Lumpkin
Americus
Vienna
DOOLY
TELFAIR
TATNALL
BRYAN
SUMPTER
Jackson
Hinesville
RANDOLPH
Cuthbert
Starkville
LEE
Browns V.
Holmesville
LIBERTY
Irwinville
APPLING
MC. INTOSH
EARLY
Blakely
Newton
IRWIN
WAYNE
C.H.
Darien
Sapelo I.
BAKER
GLYNN
Brunswick
St. Simons I.
Waresboro
WARE
LOWNDES
Bainbridge
THOMAS
Thomasville
Troupsville
Okefinokee Swamp
CAMDEN
Jeffersonton
Cumberland I.
DECATUR
St. Marys
Amelia I.
Monticello
TALLAHASSEE
St. Marks
Lancaster

Rivers and Sounds.—The principal rivers are, the Savannah, Ogeechee, Alatamaha, Satilla, Ocmulgee, Oconee, St. Mary's, Flint, Chattahoochee, Tallapoosa, and Coosa. The coast of Georgia is indented by numerous sounds and inlets, which occur at the mouths of the principal rivers.

Islands.—Along the Atlantic coast there is a chain of islands, which are separated from the main by rivers, creeks, and inlets, forming an inland navigation of more than 100 miles. The principal of these islands are, Tybee, Wassaw, Ossabaw, St. Catharine's, Sapelo, St. Simon's, Jykill, and Cumberland.

Climate.—The climate, from the difference of elevation, is varied, one section producing wheat, and another sugar-cane. The winters are usually mild and pleasant; snow is seldom seen, nor is vegetation often interrupted by severe frosts. The temperature of winter usually fluctuates from 40° to 60° Fahrenheit, although it occasionally falls as low as 16°. In the low country, in the vicinity of swamps, fevers and bilious attacks are common, owing partly to the badness of the water, but principally to the noxious vapors which arise from stagnant water, and putrid matter in the rice swamps. In the "upper country" the air is pure and salubrious throughout the year, and the water is abundant and good.

Cities and Chief Towns.—Milledgeville is the seat of government. Augusta, Columbus, Macon, and Savannah,* are cities. The other populous towns are, Athens, Darien, Greensborough, Louisville, Petersburg, St. Mary's, Sparta. and Washington.

Productive Resources.—The staple products of this state consist of horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, silk, wool, butter, cheese, cotton, tobacco, rice, sugar, wine, wheat, rye, oats, barley, potatoes, and Indian corn. Among the mineral resources are, copper, iron, and gold. The latter occurs in considerable abundance in the northern part of the state, on both sides of Chattahoochee river, as far north as the Blue Ridge.

Manufactures.—The people of Georgia are more engaged in manufactures than those of any other southern state. It has quite a number of large cotton factories, which are worked by slave labor. It has also extensive tanneries, and mills of various descriptions.

Railroads and Canals.—There are about 1,000 miles of railroad already in successful operation in Georgia, and more in process of construction. The cost of the railroads already completed in this state is over $15,000,000. The principal canals in Georgia are, one from Savannah to the Ogeechee river, 16 miles, and another from Altamaha to Brunswick, 12 miles.

Commerce.—The foreign commerce of Georgia amounts to about $9,000,000 annually. The coasting trade is also considerable.

Education.—The university of Georgia, founded in 1785, at Athens, is the

* Savannah, the chief commercial town in Georgia, is situated on the south side of the river from which it derives its name, 16 miles from the ocean, and 90 miles southwest of Charleston. The banks of the river rise about 40 feet, at the foot of which are the stores and warehouses, while the principal residences extend over the level, at the top of the eminence. The streets are broad, are regularly laid out, ornamented along their sides, and through the middle, with the "Pride of China" and other shade trees, while airy and verdant parks are interspersed more frequently than in most American cities, affording delightful walks at all times of the day. Savannah has an excellent harbor, with a safe and easy entrance from the ocean. Several islands are formed by the embouchures of the river, affording both protection and ornament. Upon Tybee island a lighthouse marks the entrance to the port, while the forts protect the city from outward assault. Vessels of 13 feet draught anchor at the wharves of the city; those of larger size at a point several miles below. Above Savannah, the river is navigable for steamboats of 150 tons to Augusta, 150 miles. By this and other channels most of the cotton, tobacco, sugar, lumber, and other staples of Georgia, are conveyed to Savannah, where they find a market, or are exported. This city, from its favorable commercial situation, on a coast not well supplied with good harbors, is the receptable of productions from an extensive region. Late improvements by railroads, and other channels of communication, have added largely to its growth and prosperity. A canal connects Ogeechee river with the Savannah. Steamboats navigate the principal rivers of the state, and sail to Charleston, and other cities on the coast, and regular steam and sailing packets communicate with New York.

The Central railroad extends 191 miles to Macon, whence the Macon and Western railroad proceeds 101 miles in a northwesterly direction to Atlanta. Through this place passes the Georgia and Western and Atlantic railroad from Augusta to Chatham, on Tennessee river, in Hamilton county, Tennessee.

The population of the city in 1810 was 5,595; in 1820, 7,523; in 1830, 9,748; in 1840, 11,214; in 1850, 17,841.

principal literary institution in the state. There are also, the Oglethorpe university, at Medina, near Milledgeville. The Mercer university, at Penfield, the Georgia Female college, near Macon, and the Georgia medical college, at Augusta. There are about 250 academies scattered through the state, and some 1,500 primary and common schools.

Population.—In 1749, 6,000; in 1790, 82,584; in 1800, 162,686; in 1810, 252,433; in 1820, 348,989; in 1830, 516,567; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows:—

Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.
Appling	2,949	2,052	Gilmer	8,440	2,536	Muscogee	18,578	11,699
Baker	8,120	4,226	Glynn	4,933	5,302	Newton	13,296	11,628
Baldwin	8,148	7,250	Gordon	5,984	new co.	Oglethorpe	12,259	10,868
Bibb	12,699	9,802	Greene	13,068	11,690	Paulding	7,039	2,556
Bryan	3,424	3,182	Gwinnett	11,257	10,804	Pike	14,305	9,176
Bullock	4,300	3,102	Habersham	8,895	7,961	Pulaski	6,627	5,389
Burke	16,100	15,176	Hall	8,713	7,875	Putnam	10,794	10,260
Butts	6,488	5,308	Hancock	11,578	9,659	Rabun	2,448	1,912
Camden	6,319	6,075	Harris	14,721	13,933	Randolph	12,868	8,276
Campbell	7,232	5,370	Heard	6,923	5,329	Richmond	16,246	11,932
Carroll	9,357	5,252	Henry	14,726	11,756	Scriven	6,847	4,794
Cass	13,309	9,390	Houston	16,450	9,711	Stewart	16,027	12,933
Chatham	23,901	18,801	Irwin	3,334	2,038	Sumter	10,322	5,759
Chattooga	6,815	3,438	Jackson	9,768	8,522	Talbot	16,534	15,627
Cherokee	12,800	5,895	Jasper	11,486	11,111	Taliaferro	5,146	5,190
Clarke	11,119	10,522	Jones	10,224	10,065	Tatnall	3,227	2,724
Cobb	13,843	7,539	Jefferson	9,131	7,254	Telfair	3,026	2,763
Columbia	11,961	11,356	Laurens	6,442	5,585	Thomas	10,103	6,763
Coweta	13,635	10,364	Lee	6,659	4,520	Troup	16,879	15,733
Crawford	8,984	7,981	Liberty	7,926	7,241	Twiggs	8,179	8,422
Dade	2,680	1,364	Lincoln	5,998	5,895	Union	7,234	3,152
Decatur	8,262	5,872	Lowndes	8,351	5,574	Upson	9,424	9,408
De Kalb	14,328	10,467	Lumpkin	8,954	5,671	Walker	13,109	6,572
Dooly	8,361	4,427	Macon	7,052	5,045	Walton	10,821	10,209
Early	7,246	5,444	Madison	5,603	4,510	Ware	3,888	2,323
Effingham	3,864	3,075	Marion	10,280	4,812	Warren	12,425	9,789
Elbert	12,959	11,125	M'Intosh	6,028	5,360	Washington	11,766	10,565
Emanuel	4,577	3,129	Meriwether	16,476	14,132	Wayne	1,499	1,258
Fayette	8,709	6,191	Monroe	16,985	16,275	Wilkinson	8,212	6,842
Floyd	8,205	4,441	Montgomery	2,154	1,616	Wilkes	12,107	10,148
Forsyth	8,850	5,619	Morgan	10,744	9,121			
Franklin	11,513	9,886	Murray	14,433	4,695	Total	905,999	691,392

Number of slaves in 1790, 29,264; in 1800, 59,404; in 1810, 105,218; in 1820, 149,656; in 1830, 217,531; in 1840, 280,944; in 1850, 381,681.

Government.—The governor is elected by the people, and holds his office two years. The senate consists of 47 members, elected from forty-four districts of two counties each, two districts of three counties each, and one district comprising but a single county. The house of representatives is composed of 130 members: the 35 counties having the largest number of inhabitants are entitled to two members each, and the remainder one each. State election biennially, first Monday in October The legislature meets biennially, on the first Monday in November (odd years), at Milledgeville. The judges of the superior court are elected for three years by the legislature, and the judges of the inferior courts and justices of the peace are elected quadrennially by the people. All the free white male inhabitants, who shall have resided within the county in which they vote six months preceding the election, and shall have paid taxes in the state for the year previous, have the right of suffrage.

History.—The state of Georgia embraces a part of Virginia, as granted to Sir Walter Raleigh, in 1584; or a portion of South Virginia, as granted by James I., of England, in 1606. A portion of its present territory also embraces a part of the ancient Georgia colony, chartered in 1732, to a corporation "in trust for the poor," for twenty-one years, including the country between the Savannah and Altamaha rivers, extending westward from their sources to the "South sea;" also a portion of the northern part of Florida, as claimed at the time by Spain. The first permanent settlement in Georgia was made under this grant at Savannah, by Oglethorpe, in 1732, who brought out a band of colonists, collected from among the poor and vicious population, as an experimental effort for their reformation, by providing them with the means of self-support.

This benevolent design failing of success, the trustees of the colony sent out a better class of emigrants in 1735 from Scotland, Switzerland, and Germany. In the year following Oglethorpe extended his settlements as far south as St. John's river, in Florida, but was repulsed by the Spaniards. He retained his fortification at the mouth of the St. Mary's, and this river afterward became the boundary between Georgia and Florida. In the year 1752, the trustees of the colony surrendered their charter to the king, and the province was forced into a royal government. A general representative assembly was established in 1755; and in 1763, all the territory between the Altamaha and St. Mary's was annexed. In 1775, Georgia acceded to the union of the colonies, and sent deputies to Congress. When military operations were transferred to the southern states, from 1779 to 1781, Georgia became a portion of the bloody arena. It was at the siege of Savannah, Sept. 23, 1779, that Count Pulaski,* the brave and patriotic Pole, was killed. In 1777, the first state constitution was adopted, and the parishes then existing were formed into counties. A second constitution was adopted in 1785, and the one now in force in 1798. In 1788, it adopted the constitution of the United States by a unanimous vote. By different conventions, all of the new states, Alabama and Mississippi, lying north of thirty-one degrees, have been yielded to the general government. Motto of the state seal of Georgia, "Constitution" supported by "Wisdom" "Justice," "Moderation," and "Agriculture and Commerce."

Pulaski and Greene Monument, Savannah, Ga.

GOVERNORS OF GEORGIA.

Under the British Crown.			*During the Revolution.*
Jnmes Edward Oglethorpe....1732	John Reynolds.....1754		William Cawin, Pres. Council .1775
William Stephens, Act. Gov...1743	Henry Ellis.....1757		Archibald Bullock, Pres Coun.1776
Henry Parker, Act. Gov.....1751	James Wright.....1760		Button Gwinnett, Pres. Coun..1777
	James Habersham. Act. Gov...1761		

GOVERNORS UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

John A. Treuilen....1777	Samuel Elbert.....1785	Josiah Tatnall.....1801	John Forsyth.....1827
John Houston.....1778	Edward Telfair.....1786	John Milledge.....1802	George R. Gilmer....1829
John Werriatt.....1778	George Matthews....1787	Jared Irwin.....1806	Wilson Lumpkin....1831
George Walton.....1779	George Handley.....1788	David B. Mitchell....1809	William Schley.....1835
Richard Howley.....1780	George Walton.....1789	Peter Early.....1813	George R. Gilmer....1837
Stephen Heard.....1781	Edward Telfair.....1790	David B. Mitchell....1815	Charles J. M'Donald.1839
Nathan Brownson....1781	George Matthews....1793	William Rabun.....1817	George W. Crawford.1843
John Martin.....1782	Jared Irwin.....1796	Matthew Talbot.....1819	George W. Towns...1849
Lyman Hall.....1783	James Jackson.....1798	John Clarke.....1819	Howell Cobb.....1851
John Houston.....1784	David Emanuel.....1801	George M. Troup....1823	

* The corner-stone of a monument, to the memory of Generals Pulaski and Greene, was laid by Lafayette, in March, 1825. The monument is a neat and simple obelisk of white marble, 53 feet high. The base of the pedestal is ten feet four inches by six feet eight inches, and its height thirteen feet. the needle which surmounts the pedestal being thirty-seven feet in height. It is built upon a platform of granite, three feet above the ground, and the whole is enclosed by a cast-iron railing. It has a very advantageous position, in the middle of Johnson square, Savannah. Another monument to Pulaski, from a beautiful design, is in course of erection on Chippewa square.

FLORIDA.*

Florida, the most southern state in the Union, lies between 25° and 31° north latitude, and 80° and 87½° west longitude from Greenwich; and is bounded north by Alabama and Georgia, east by the Atlantic, south by the gulf of Mexico, and west by the gulf of Mexico and Alabama. Its superficial area is 59,000 square miles, of which but about one half is yet surveyed and occupied.

Physical Aspect.—The face of the country is generally level, and not much elevated above the sea, though we find along the whole northern boundary considerably diversity of surface. A base of calcareous rock commences in the northern part of the state, and probably extends under the whole peninsula. This friable stone outcrops the surface at St. Augustine, and other parts on the main, and reappears again on the southern keys, as well as on the Bahamas, and the northern shores of Cuba, on the opposite side of the gulf. In Florida, this formation is generally overlaid by deep super-strata of clay, shells, and sand. The soil, however, generally is sandy, except in places called "hummocks," where it consists either of reddish-yellow or black clay, mixed with sand. These hummocks, which are numerous and much scattered throughout the state, vary in extent from a few acres to several miles in extent, and constitute no small part of the peninsula. Another inconsiderable portion of Florida consists in what is generally known in the south by the name of "pine-barrens," much of the soil of which is exceedingly poor; though there are extensive tracts of hummock, table-land, and swamp, of the richest character, and well adapted to cultivation. These barrens, wherever intersected by streams of pure water, however poor they may be, afford excellent ranges for grazing. The southern portion of the state presents singular alternations of savannas, hummocks, lakes, and grass-ponds, called collectively "everglades," which extend from Cape Sable into the heart of the country for several hundred miles. This region, including two large swamps, one named Atsenahooffa, on the western side, and the other Halpabeoka, on the northeastern side, embracing the large lake Okeechobee, covers an area of 7,000,000 acres, 4,500,000 of which are usually submerged in water, from two to seven feet deep. The "Pahhayokee," or "grass-water," as the Indians call the everglades, comprises from 1,000,000 to 1,500,000 acres of submerged lands. The basin of the everglades is surrounded by a rim of soft lime-rock, from half a mile to five miles in width, and its bottom is represented to be some 12 or 15 feet above the level of the sea. Deep tide rivers extend from the ocean and gulf quite up to the margin of the river; and comparatively, at a small outlay, millions of acres of land, now worthless, could be drained by canals, and brought into the highest state of improvement. Within this basin are thousands of islets, of the richest class of land, and the glades are often filled with tall grass, from six to ten feet in height, the annual decay of which has occasioned a deposite in the water from two to six feet thick. This tract lies south of 27½° of north latitude, where there is seldom or no frost; and if it were reclaimed, as suggested above, it would be adapted to the cultivation of the orange, the pineapple, rice, sugarcane, and other tropical plants.

Rivers, Lakes, and Bays.—The principal rivers are, the St. John's, Appalachicola, Suwanee, St. Mark's, St. Mary's, Ocklocony, Escambia, Withlacoo-

* So called by Juan Ponce de Leon, in 1512, from having discovered the coast on Pascua Florida, the name, in Spanish, for Easter.

FLORIDA
Scale of Miles
10 30 50 70
GEORGIA
GULF OF MEXICO
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Alatamaha Riv.
Holmesville
Darien
Brunswick
Waresboro
Ossibaw I.
Sapelo I.
Cumberland I.
Amelia I.
St. Johns R.
St. Marys
NASSAU
Jackson
DUVAL
Alligator
COLUMBIA
Whitesville
Ft. Ward
Nat. Bridge
Santa Fe R.
Newnansville
Pilatka
ALACHUA
Ft. Downing
Old T.
Ft. Fanning
LEVY
Ft. Micanopy
Orange
L. George
Volusia
Ft. King
Ft. Butler
Derters L.
Enterprise
New Smyrna
Masquita Bar
Ft. Clinch
Withlacoochee R.
C.H.
BENTON
L. Ahapopka
ORANGE
Poinsett L.
Tohopekaliga L.
Cape Canaveral
Indian Riv.
Tampa
Ft. Frazer
Kissimee L.
Kissimee R.
Istopoga L.
Okeechobee Lake
Indian Riv. Inlet
Jupiter Inlet
Charlotte Bar
Charlotte R.
MONROE
The Everglades
Cape Roman
Gallivans Bay
DADE
Miami
Cape Florida
Carisford Reef
Cape Sable
Key Largos
Barnes Sound
Great In.
Long I.
Viper I.
Pine Isles
Dry Tortugas Keys
Key West
FLORIDA KEYS
Gulf Stream
STRAITS OF FLORIDA
Lon. West from Washington
Appalachicola
Appalachicola Riv.
Appalachicola Bay
St. Georges I.
Chattahoochee
Quincy
Monticello
TALLAHASSEE
LEON
CH.
WAKULLA
JEFFERSON
Madison
Marion
Jasper
HAMILTON
Columbus
Suwanee Riv.
Ft. Pleasant
MADISON
Ft. Andrews
FRANKLIN
GADSDEN
Alligator Pt.
Cedar Keys
Waccasassa Bay
Helleys Keys
Anclote Keys
Tampa Bay
Long I.
Palm I.
HILLSBOROUGH
Peas Cr.
ST. LUCIE
ALABAMA
ESCAMBIA
SANTA ROSA
Milton
Pensacola
Almirante
HOLMES
Euchee
WALTON
Choctawhatchee R.
Choctawhatchee
JACKSON
Webbville
Marianna
Chipola
Roches Bluff
WASHINGTON
CALHOUN
C.H.
St. Andrews
St. Joseph
FRANKLIN
Appalachicola
GEO.
WEST PART of FLORIDA
Lon. West from Washington

chee, Oscilla, Choctawhatchee, Yellow-Water, Amasura, Anclota, Hillsborough, Charlotte, Gallivan's, Young's, Kissimee, and the Perdido; the latter of which forms the western boundary between this state and Alabama. The St. John's is an anomaly among the rivers of the Atlantic coast. Its source is rather undefinable, being derived from the flat grassy plains, or savannas, in about latitude 28° north, probably not more than 20 miles from the sea. It is exceedingly winding in its course, running in a northerly direction, to a distance of nearly 300 miles. In some places it has more the appearance of a lake, or sound, than a river, swelling out from three to five miles in breadth; while in other parts it dwindles down to a quarter of a mile wide. Vessels drawing eight feet of water ascend to Lake George, a beautiful expansion of this stream, 150 miles from its mouth. The chief lakes are, the Great Okeechobee, George, Dunn's, Cypress, Monroe, Orange, Istopoga, Tobokopoligia, Weeok, Yakapka, Jessup, Harney, Eustis, Poinsett, Beresford, Ashey, Winsor, Gardiner, Griffin, and Gentry. There are numerous bays on the western side, some of which form good harbors. Among these are, Perdido, Pensacola, Choctawhatchie, St. Andrew's, St. Joseph's, Appalachicola, Appalachee, Tampa, Charlotte, and Gallivan's. In front of Pensacola bay is a long, shallow lagoon, called Santa Rosa sound. On the east coast of the state there are but few bays, properly speaking. Fernandina bay forms the mouth of the St. Mary's river. Mosquito and Indian river, or St. Lucia sounds, are situated near Cape Canaveral, which are entered by inlets of the same names. Many of the rivers on this side of the peninsula form good harbors for coasting vessels.

Islands and Keys.—Florida is remarkable for the great number of small low islets which lie in the vicinity of its shores, called "Keys." The most noted of these are, Key West (formerly called Thompson's island), Indian, Sand, Pine, and Cedar keys. The most noted islands are, Merit's, and Hutchinson's, near Cape Carnaveral; Amelia island, near St. Mary's sound; Sanybel, Pine, Captive, and Gasparilla islands, near Charlotte harbor; Mullet island, near Tampa bay; St. George's, and Dog islands, near Appalachicola bay; Santa Rosa island, near Pensacola bay; and Drayton island, in Lake George. Cape Sable is the southernmost point of the United States.

Climate.—Florida presents some diversity of seasons; but the difference of relative level being small, and surrounded as it is by water on three sides, it enjoys a climate peculiar to itself. On the seaboard it is generally healthy for eight or nine months in the year, and in some parts remarkably so the whole year round. In the interior, it is quite as salubrious as it is in either of the other southern states, unless it be in the vicinity of marshes, or stagnant waters, where fevers and other epidemics invariably prevail. The winters are mild, and usually without frost, though the mercury occasionally sinks to 30° Fahrenheit, and sometimes as low as 26°; in summer, the temperature seldom exceeds 92°. The climate of the southernmost keys is truly tropical.

Chief Towns.—Tallahassee is the seat of government. The other populous towns are, Appalachicola, Jacksonville, Key West, Monticello, Pensacola, Quincy, and St. Augustine.

Productive Resources.—The staple products consist of horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, hay, wool, tobacco, cotton, wheat, oats, potatoes, oranges, sugar, molasses, and Indian corn. The forests produce an abundance of live-oak timber, cedar, and yellow pine. Turtle and other fisheries are carried on somewhat extensively among the keys. Salt is made in small quantities, and granite is quarried to some extent.

Manufactures.—Florida being mostly an agricultural state, but little attention as yet has been paid to manufactures. In 1850 there were but 121 manufacturing establishments, producing to the extent of $500 and upward each annually.

Railroads and Canals.—The legislature of Florida has granted several charters for railroads in this state, but thus far there are neither railroads nor canals within its borders.

Commerce.—The direct foreign commerce of Florida amounts to about $3,000,000 annually. Shipments are also extensively made through New Orleans and the Atlantic ports. The coasting trade of Florida is also considerable. The shipping owned within the state amounts to about 12,000 tons.

Education.—The constitution of Florida provides for the establishment of common schools throughout the state, but thus far but little progress has been made in affording facilities for elementary education. There are academies and grammar-schools in the more populous towns, but no collegiate institution.

Population.—In 1830, 34,723; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows:—

Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.
Alachua	2,524	2,282	Hillsborough	2,377	452	Nassau	2,164	1,892
Benton	926	new co.	Holmes	1,644	new co.	Orange	466	new co.
Calhoun	1,377	1,142	Jackson	6,639	4,681	Putnam	687	new co.
Columbia	4,808	2,102	Jefferson	7,718	5,713	St. John	2,525	2,694
Dade	159	446	Leon	11,442	10.713	St. Lucie	139	new co.
Duval	4,539	4,156	Levy	465	new co.	Santa Ross	2,883	new co.
Escambia	4,351	3,993	Madison	5,490	2,644	Wakulla	1,955	new co.
Franklin	1,561	1,030	Marion	3,338	new co.	Walton	1,379	1,461
Gadsden	8,783	5,992	Monroe	2,643	688	Washington	1,950	859
Hamilton	2,469	1,464	Musquito	dropped	73			
						Total	87,401	54,477

Number of slaves in 1830, 15,501; in 1840, 25,717; in 1850, 39,309.

Government.—The legislative power is vested in a senate and house of representatives. The senate consists of 19 members, elected by the people, in districts, for two years. The representatives are elected by the people, by counties, biennially, their number never to exceed sixty; present number, 30. Biennial election, first Monday in October. The executive power is vested in a governor, who is chosen by the people once in four years, and is not eligible the succeeding term. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, having appellate jurisdiction only; also in circuit courts, the state being divided into four circuits, in each of which a judge of the supreme court has jurisdiction. The judges are elected by the legislature, at first for five years; after that term, during good behavior. There are also courts of probate. The right of suffrage may be exercised by every free white male, aged 21 years, or upward, who has resided in the state for two years, and in the county for six months, and who shall be enrolled in the militia, or be by law exempted from serving therein.

History.—The present state of Florida embraces a portion of the ancient Florida, which extended from its southernmost cape to the river Panuco, in Mexico, and westward to the Pacific, and the undefined regions on the north. It was first explored by Juan Ponce de Leon, in 1512, in search of a spring called the "fountain of youth," which was supposed to have the power of renewing the vigor of youth in the aged. In 1526, it was formally taken possession of, in the name of the king of Spain, by Phainphilio de Narvaez, who had been sent out as governor. The first permanent settlements were made at St. Augustine, in 1565, and at Pensacola, in 1699; though an unsuccessful attempt had been made, by a colony of Huguenots, in 1562–'64, under Ribault. Though often invaded by the English and French, this territory remained a part of the Spanish dominions until 1763, when it was ceded to Great Britain, but restored again to Spain in 1783. From the year 1699 to 1763 the acknowledged boundary between Florida and Louisiana was the river Perdido, but when the latter came into the possession of the Spaniards, for convenience, West Florida was extended to the Mississippi. From this circumstance arose the difficulties between Spain and the United States, on their purchase of Louisiana of the French, in 1803. In 1781, Governor Galvez, of Louisiana, invaded and conquered West Florida; but by the treaty of Paris in 1783, it fell as before stated to Spain, who held it until 1798, when this portion of Florida, which was claimed as far

north as Altamaha river, in Georgia, was relinquished to the United States. By virtue of their claims to that portion of Louisiana lying between the Mississippi and Perdido rivers, as held by France prior to 1763, the United States, in 1811, seized Baton Rouge, and all other parts of the disputed territory west of Perdido, except Mobile, which also surrendered in 1812. After a protracted and uninterrupted negotiation, Florida was ceded to the United States, in 1819, ratified by Congress as a territory in 1821, and admitted into the Union as an independent state in 1845. Motto of the seal, "Let us alone."

GOVERNORS OF FLORIDA.

William P. Duval....1822	Robert B. Reid.....1839	*Under the Constitution.*
John H. Eaton.....1834	Richard K. Call.....1841	William D. Moseley..1845
Richard K. Call.....1836	John Branch.....1844	Thomas Brown.....1849

ALABAMA.

Alabama lies between 30° 17′ and 35° north latitude, and 84° 58′ and 88° 26′ longitude west from Greenwich; and is bounded north by Tennessee, east by Georgia, south by Florida and the Mexican gulf, and west by Mississippi. Its superficial area is 50,722 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The face of Alabama is somewhat varied. Near the gulf of Mexico the country is low and level, embracing numerous swamps and savannas. A large portion of the upland, toward the centre, consists of pine-barrens, thinly wooded, or covered with coarse grass. The soil here is generally sandy and thin. The central part of the state consists of a table-land, with a deep, rich, productive soil. Toward the north, the surface becomes mountainous and hilly, beyond which lies the valley of the Tennessee, where the soil is highly fertile.

Mountains.—The Cumberland or Appalachian range extends into this state from the northeast, and are believed to abound in mineral wealth.

Rivers and Bays.—The principal rivers are, the Alabama, Tombigbee, Black Warrior, Coosa, Tallapoosa, Tennessee, Chattahoochee, Perdido, Cahawba, and the Mobile. The chief bays are, Mobile, and Bon Secour, which are situated at the southwest part of the state.

Islands.—At the mouth of Mobile bay is a chain of low islands, the three principal of which are, Dauphine, Hurricane, and Horn.

Climate.—The climate of the uplands is generally salubrious, with mild winters, and pleasant summers; but in the southern parts, and along the borders of the streams, it is unhealthy. The extremes of the seasons greatly vary. Those portions of the state lying along the gulf may be regarded as sub-tropical, while those situated in the more elevated and northerly parts, are more or less subject to excessive frosts, and abiding snows. Although the navigation of the rivers is sometimes impeded by ice, it is more frequently the case that it is suspended by excessive droughts.

Cities and Chief Towns.—Montgomery is the seat of government. Mobile* and Tuscaloosa (the late capital) are cities. The other populous towns are,

* Mobile, the principal city, and only port of entry, of Alabama, lies on Mobile bay, 30 miles north of the gulf of Mexico, 160 miles east of New Orleans, and 1,013 miles from Washington. It occupies an elevated plain overlooking the pleasant bay, and is fanned by its breezes. Fires have several times injured the city, but it has been rebuilt with improved appearance and solidity. From its position in the state, it is the receptacle of the commerce of Alabama. Vast quantities of cotton are annually exported. The harbor is difficult of access, being

ALABAMA
TENNESSEE
GEORGIA
FLORIDA
MISSISSIPPI
GULF OF MEXICO
LAUDERDALE
LIMESTONE
MADISON
JACKSON
DEKALB
LAWRENCE
MORGAN
MARSHALL
FRANKLIN
WALKER
BLOUNT
CHEROKEE
MARION
FAYETTE
JEFFERSON
ST. CLAIR
BENTON
PICKENS
TUSCALOOSA
SHELBY
TALLADEGA
RANDOLPH
COOSA
TALLAPOOSA
CHAMBERS
BIBB
GREENE
PERRY
AUTAUGA
MONTGOMERY
MACON
RUSSELL
SUMPTER
MARENGO
DALLAS
LOWNDES
CHOC
WILCOX
BARBOUR
TAW
CLARKE
BUTLER
PIKE
WASHINGTON
MONROE
CONECUH
COVINGTON
COFFEE
DALE
HENRY
MOBILE
BALDWIN
Savanna
Pulaski
Jasper
Florence
Athens
Bolivar
Jacinto
Tuscumbia
Leighton
Huntsville
Bellefonte
Souta
New Hope
LaFayette
Decatur
Moulton
Russell V.
Somerville
Lebanon
Jefferson
Thornhill
Warrenton
Fulton
Pikeville
Blount V.
Eldridge
Moscow
Jasper
Ashville
Ladiga
Jacksonville
Fayetteville
Branch V.
Elyton
Kellys Spr.
Columbus
Millport
New Lexington
Talladega
McDonald
Jonesboro
Shelbyville
Carrollton
Columbiana
Pickens V.
Tuscaloosa
Ft. Williams
Vienna
Shelby Spring
Centerville
Youngsville
West Point
Eutaw
New Prospect
Rockford
LaFayette
Sumpter V.
Maplesville
Dadeville
Gold Hill
Greensboro
Marion
Kingston
Wetumpka
Auburn
Livingston
Demopolis
Selma
Vernon
Crocketts V.
Tuskegee
Cahawba
Linden
Lowndesport
Glenville
Haynesville
Hickery Grove
Aberfoil
Tuscahoma
Barbours V.
Bethel
Kirkville
Monticello
Clayton
Barryton
Greenville
Troy
Irwinton
Grove Hill
Gosport
Starlington
St. Stephens
Monroeville
Abbeville
Clay Bank
Sparta
Montezuma
Wilburn
Brooklyn
Columbia
Woodville
Tensaw
Stockton
Mobile
Blakeley
Pensacola
Cedar Pt.
Mobile Pt.
Tombigbee R.
Tombigbee R.
B. Warrior R.
Coosa R.
Tallapoosa R.
Tennessee R.
Chattahoochee Riv.
Alabama R.
Mobile Riv.
Perdido R.
Escambia R.
Choctawhatchee R.
Mobile R.
Perdido R.
Pensacola R.
Santa Rosa R.
Choctawhatchee R.
10 20 30 40 50 60 Miles
Longitude West from Washington
11
10
9
35
34
33
32
31
30

Athens, Cahawba (the former capital), Carrolton, Canton, Erie, Haynesville, Huntsville, Jacksonville, Livingston, Linden, Lafayette, Talladega, and Washington.

Productive Resources.—No part of this state will admit of the profitable cultivation of the sugar-cane, unless we except a narrow strip along its extreme border on the southwest. The staple products are, cotton, rice, tobacco, wheat, oats, potatoes, and Indian corn. Indigo was formerly ranked among the staple crops, but its cultivation has long since ceased. The farms under cultivation in 1850 were 41,964. Mines of gold, silver, and iron, are successfully worked in the county of Randolph. Gold also occurs in Tallapoosa, Coosa, Talladega, and Chambers. Silver is found in Tallapoosa; iron in Benton, Clarke, and Talladega; nitre in Blount; and lead in the bed of the Tennessee, on Muscle shoal. Coal abounds in Tuscaloosa, and on the Cahawba, and Black Warrior; marble, granite, limestone, &c., in Clarke, which also produces salt.

Manufactures.—There are upward of 1,000 manufacturing establishments in this state, producing $500 and more each annually. There are several cotton factories established, though they produce only the more common fabrics required for domestic use. Tanneries, and flouring, grist, and saw mills, are numerous; and the products of individual industry in the mechanic arts are considerable.

Railroads and Canals.—There are as yet but about 150 miles of railroad completed in Alabama. But new lines are projected, and some of them will be carried through at an early day. The principal canals are, the Muscle Shoal canal, 36 miles long, and the Huntsville canal, 16 miles.

Commerce.—The foreign trade of Alabama (mostly exports of domestic produce) amounts to about $18,000,000 annually. The shipping engaged in the foreign trade is about 100,000 tons, and about as much more in the coasting-trade, principally with the northern Atlantic ports.

Education.—Of the educational institutions in Alabama, the university at Tuscaloosa, founded in 1828, is the principal; besides this are, La Grange college, founded in 1831; Spring-Hill college, founded in 1830; and Howard college, at Marion, founded in 1841. A law-school is attached to the university; and theological seminaries to Spring-Hill and Howard colleges. There are in the state about 200 academies and grammar-schools, and about 1,000 primary and common schools.

Population.—In 1800, estimated at 2,000; in 1810, at 20,845; in 1820, it was 127,901; in 1830, 309,527; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows:—

Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.
Autauga	15,023	14,342	Fayette	9,681	6,942	Montgomery	29,795	24,574
Baldwin	4,414	2,951	Franklin	19,610	14,270	Morgan	10,125	9,841
Barbour	23,632	12,024	Greene	31,441	24,024	Perry	22,285	19,086
Benton	17,163	14,260	Hancock	1,542	new co.	Pickens	21,512	17,118
Bibb	9,969	8,284	Henry	9,019	5,787	Pike	15,920	10,108
Blount	7,362	5,570	Jackson	14,088	15,715	Randolph	11,581	4,973
Butler	10,836	8,685	Jefferson	8,989	7,131	Russell	19,548	13,513
Chambers	23,960	17,333	Lauderdale	17,172	14,485	Shelby	9,536	6,112
Cherokee	13,884	8,773	Lawrence	15,258	13,313	St Clair	6,829	5,638
Choctaw	8,389	new co.	Limestone	16,483	14,374	Sumter	22,250	29,937
Clarke	9,786	8,640	Lowndes	21,915	19,539	Talladega	18,624	12,587
Coffee	5,940	new co.	Macon	26,898	11,247	Tallapoosa	15,584	6,444
Conecuh	9,322	8,197	Madison	26,427	25,706	Tuscaloosa	18,056	16,583
Coosa	14,543	6,995	Marengo	27,831	17,264	Walker	5,124	4,032
Covington	3,645	2,435	Marion	7,833	5,847	Washington	2,713	5,300
Dale	6,346	7,397	Marshall	8,846	7,553	Wilcox	17,352	15,278
Dallas	29,727	25,199	Mobile	27,600	18,741			
De Kalb	8,245	5,929	Monroe	12,013	10,680	Total	771,671	590,756

Number of slaves in 1820, 41,879; in 1830, 117,549; in 1840, 253,532; in 1850, 342,892.

obstructed by marshy islands and shoals, but within, deep and spacious enough for large vessels. These, by a circuit around an island, in front of the city, anchor at its wharves. The entrance to the bay is defended by a fortification, and marked by a lighthouse. Good water from a neighboring source is distributed over the city by iron pipes. Railroads are in process of construction, to connect the city with the Ohio river, and also with the Atlantic states through Georgia. It has daily communication, by steamboat, to Proctorsville, and thence by railroad with New Orleans. There are a customhouse, courthouse, hospitals, banks, and churches.

In 1813, the period when Mobile passed from the hands of Spain into the possession of the United States, it contained about 100 buildings. In 1830, the population was 3,194; in 1840, 12,672; in 1850, 20,513.

GOVERNMENT.—The legislative power is vested in two branches, a senate, and house of representatives. The house of representatives consists of 100 members, elected for two years; the senate consists of 33 members, elected for four years, one half retiring every two years. The executive power is vested in a governor, who is elected by the people for two years; and is eligible four years out of six. State election, first Monday in August. The legislature meets biennially at Montgomery. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, of three justices; in a court of chancery, of three chancellors, the state being divided into three chancery districts; in circuit courts, each held by one judge, the state being divided into eight circuits, and such inferior courts as the legislature may establish. The judges of the supreme and circuit courts, and the chancellors, are elected by a joint vote of the two houses of the general assembly, for six years. The right of suffrage is possessed by every white male citizen, of 21 years of age, who has resided within the state one year preceding an election, and the last three months within the district in which he offers his vote.

HISTORY.—The territory of Alabama was formerly held by France, as a part of Louisiana, its first permanent settlement by Europeans having been established by D'Iberville, in 1702, on Mobile bay. Subsequently, four degrees of latitude, of its most northerly part, fell into the possession of the English, and was embraced within the grant to the Georgia colony, in 1732. After the treaty of Paris, in 1763, when Florida was ceded to Great Britain, and the French restricted to the western side of the Mississippi, the southern part of the present state of Alabama was attached to the western division of Florida, the northern division being claimed by Georgia, as a part of the original grant, which embraced the region between the rivers Savannah and Altamaha, extending from their head waters westward to the "South sea." In 1781, Governor Galvez, of Louisiana, invaded and conquered West Florida, which, together with a part of East Florida, then held by the British, once more fell into the hands of Spain, in 1783, who held it until 1798, at which time, all that portion of Georgia south of the Altamaha was ceded to the United States. By act of Congress, subsequent to the adjustment of the boundary between Louisiana and Florida, and our then newly-acquired territory, north of the thirty-first degree of latitude, provision was made for a territorial government, in what is now comprised Mississippi and Alabama, called the "Mississippi Territory." In 1802, cession was made, by Georgia, to the United States, of all her territory on the west, between Chattahoochee and Mississippi rivers, as far up the former as near the thirty-third parallel of latitude, and thence to latitude thirty five degrees by the existing line between Georgia and Alabama. In this condition the Mississippi territory remained until 1817, when it was organized by act of Congress into two states, Mississippi and Alabama. In 1819, the inhabitants of the latter formed its constitution, and in 1820 it was admitted into the Union as an independent state.

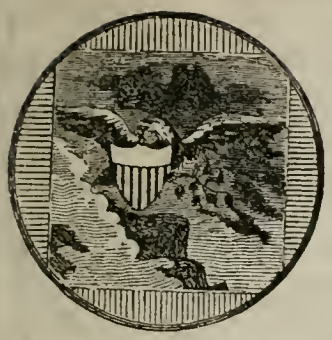
GOVERNORS OF ALABAMA.

William W. Bibb, appointed 1817, Governor of the Territory of Alabama.

UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

William W. Bibb....1819	Gabriel Moore.....1829	Arthur P. Bagby.....1837	Reuben Chapman....1847
Israel Pickens.....1821	John Gayle.....1831	Benjamin Fitzpatrick.1841	Henry W. Collier....1849
John Murphy.....1825	Clement C. Clay.....1835	Joshua L. Martin....1845	

MISSISSIPPI.



The state of Mississippi is situated between 30° 10′ and 35° north latitude, and 88° 10′ and 91° 35′ west longitude from Greenwich; and is bounded north by Tennessee, east by Alabama, south by the gulf of Mexico and Louisiana, and west by Pearl and Mississippi rivers, the latter of which separates this state from Louisiana and Arkansas, and the former from Louisiana. Its superficial area is 47,157 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The surface of the southern portions of this state, for 100 miles inland from the Mexican gulf, is even, with occasional hills of moderate elevation, interspersed with prairies, inundated marshes, and cypress swamps. The soil is generally sandy and gravelly, mingled more or less with clay, and is capable of producing all of the crops peculiar to the South. The central and northern parts of the state are more elevated, and the face of the country agreeably diversified by hills and dales. The soil is exceedingly fertile, producing abundant crops.

Rivers and Bays.—The principal rivers are, the Mississippi, Pearl, Pascagoula, Yazoo, Tombigbee, and the Big Black. The only bays are, the Pascagoula, Biloxi, and St. Louis, which lie contiguous to the Mexican gulf.

Climate.—The winters of Mississippi, as compared with the winters at the north, may be regarded as mild; but, like those of the adjoining states, they vary from each other, and not unfrequently are quite severe. No winter passes without more or less frost, and few, in some parts of the state, without snow. Neither the sugar-cane, nor the orange, will grow unprotected north of latitude 31°. In general, the winters along the Mississippi are two or three degrees colder than in corresponding parallels on the Atlantic. The summers are usually very hot, subject to long droughts, and not unfrequently to excessive and protracted rains. Like most other southern countries, this state is generally healthy, except in the vicinity of swamps, and sluggish streams, where, in summer and autumn, fevers and bilious complaints frequently prevail.

Cities and Chief Towns.—Jackson is the seat of government. Natchez and Vicksburg are cities. The other populous towns are, Benton, Canton, Fayette, Port Gibson, Raymond, and Woodville.

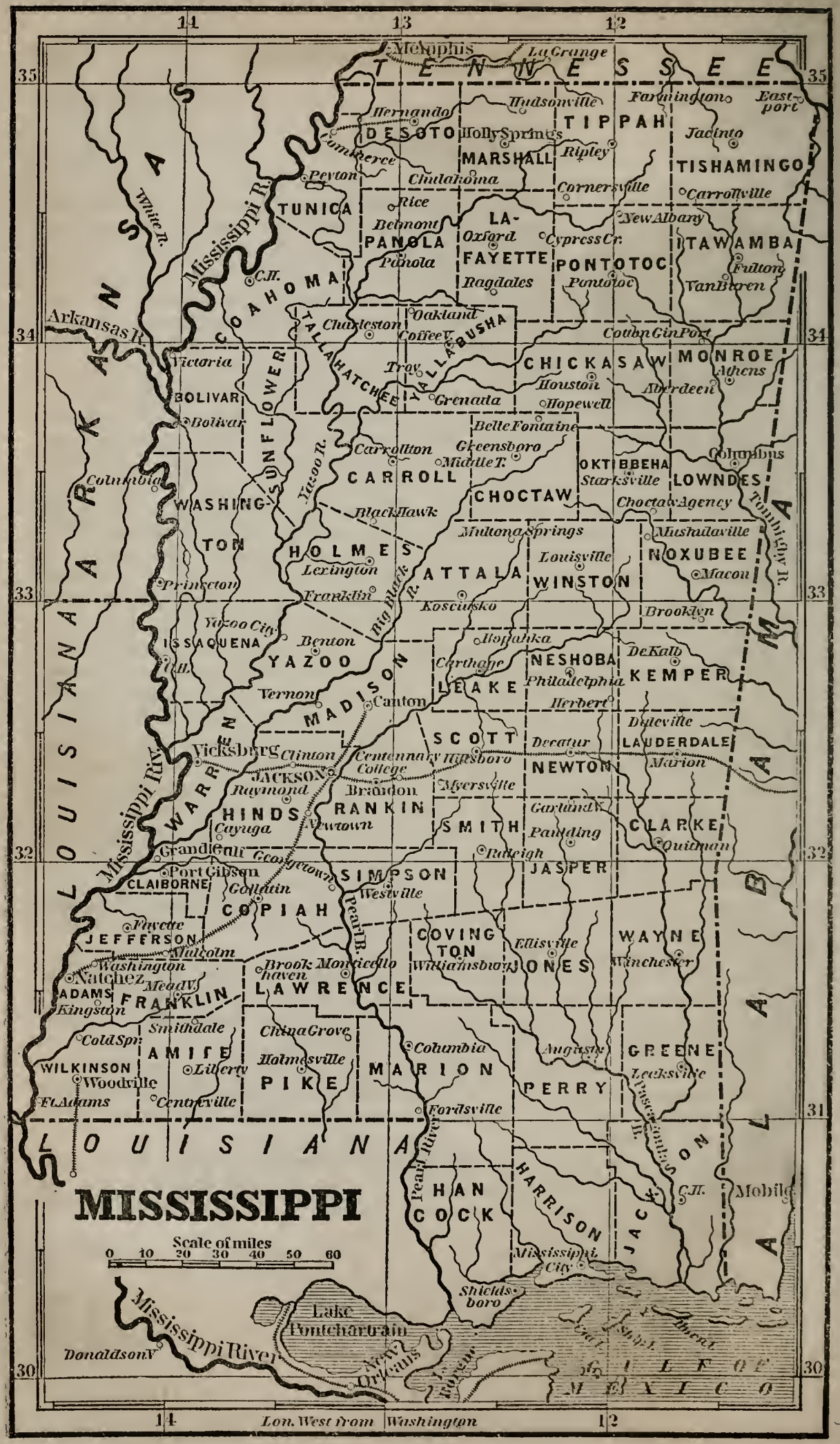
Productive Resources.—The products of this state are, horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, wax, wool, lumber, tar, pitch, turpentine, cotton, tobacco, rice, wheat, rye, barley, oats, potatoes, and Indian corn. Cotton is the great staple, little regard being had to other crops.

Manufactures.—But little attention is paid in this state to manufactures, beyond supplying some of the more immediate wants of the people. In 1850 there were 866 manufacturing establishments, whose annual products amounted to $500 and upward.

Railroads.—There are about 200 miles of railroad completed in Mississippi, and others are projected. The Vicksburg, Jackson, and Brandon road, 60 miles long, is the most important road as yet built. Another road, from Natchez to Jackson, the capital of the state, is in progress.

Commerce.—Mississippi has no direct foreign commerce, its shipping to foreign countries being made through the ports of neighboring states.

Education.—The principal collegiate institutions of Mississippi are, the Oakland college, founded in 1830; the Centenary college, in 1841; and the Mississippi university, at Oxford, founded in 1846. There are also about 100 academies and 500 common schools in the state.


MISSISSIPPI
Scale of miles
0 10 20 30 40 50 60
TENNESSEE
ARKANSAS
LOUISIANA
ALABAMA
GULF OF MEXICO
Lon. West from Washington
Mississippi R.
Mississippi Riv.
Arkansas R.
White R.
Tombigby R.
Pearl R.
Pearl River
Pascagoula R.
Big Black R.
Yazoo R.
Lake Pontchartrain
Mississippi River
Memphis
La Grange
Hernando
DESOTO
Hudsonville
TIPPAH
Farmington
Eastport
Holly Springs
MARSHALL
Ripley
Jacinto
TISHAMINGO
Commerce
Peyton
Chulahoma
Cornersville
Carrollville
TUNICA
Rice
Belmont
PANOLA
Panola
LA-FAYETTE
Oxford
Cypress Cr.
New Albany
ITAWAMBA
Fulton
PONTOTOC
Pontotoc
Ragdales
Van Buren
C.H.
COAHOMA
Charleston
Oakland
Coffee V.
TALLAHATCHEE
YALLABUSHA
Cotton Gin Port
Victoria
SUNFLOWER
Troy
CHICKASAW
MONROE
Athens
Houston
Aberdeen
BOLIVAR
Grenada
Hopewell
Bolivar
Belle Fontaine
Carrollton
Greensboro
Middle T.
OKTIBBEHA
Columbus
Columbia
CARROLL
Starksville
LOWNDES
WASHINGTON
CHOCTAW
Choctaw Agency
Black Hawk
Multona Springs
Mushulaville
HOLMES
Louisville
NOXUBEE
Lexington
ATTALA
WINSTON
Macon
Princeton
Franklin
Kosciusko
Brooklyn
Yazoo City
ISSAQUENA
Benton
Hopahka
YAZOO
Carthage
NESHOBA
DeKalb
KEMPER
C.H.
LEAKE
Philadelphia
Vernon
MADISON
Canton
Herbert
Daleville
SCOTT
Decatur
LAUDERDALE
Vicksburg
Clinton
Centennary College
Hillsboro
NEWTON
Marion
JACKSON
Raymond
Brandon
Myersville
WARREN
HINDS
RANKIN
Garland V.
Cayuga
Newtown
SMITH
Paulding
CLARKE
Grand Gulf
Georgetown
Raleigh
Quitman
Port Gibson
SIMPSON
JASPER
CLAIBORNE
Gallatin
Westville
COPIAH
Fayette
JEFFERSON
COVINGTON
Ellisville
WAYNE
Malcolm
Williamsburg
JONES
Washington
Brookhaven
Monticello
Winchester
Natchez
Mead V.
ADAMS
FRANKLIN
LAWRENCE
Kingston
Smithdale
China Grove
Cold Spr.
AMITE
Columbia
Augusta
GREENE
WILKINSON
Liberty
Holmesville
MARION
Leaksville
Woodville
PIKE
PERRY
Ft. Adams
Centreville
Fordsville
HANCOCK
HARRISON
JACKSON
C.H.
Mobile
Mississippi City
Shieldsboro
Donaldson V.
Lake Pontchartrain
New Orleans
14
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31
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POPULATION.—In 1800, 8,850; in 1810, 40,352; in 1820, 75,448; in 1830, 136,621; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows:—

COUNTIES.	1850.	1840.	COUNTIES.	1850.	1840.	COUNTIES.	1850.	1840.
Adams	18,622	19,434	Itawamba	13,528	5,375	Perry	2,438	1,887
Amite	9,694	9,511	Jackson	3,196	1,965	Pike	7,360	6,151
Attila	10,999	4,303	Jasper	6,184	3,958	Pontotoc	17,112	4,491
Bolivar	2,577	1,356	Jefferson	13,193	11,650	Rankin	7,227	4 631
Carroll	18,491	10,481	Jones	2,164	1,258	Scott	3,961	1,653
Chickasaw	16,368	2,955	Kemper	12,517	7,663	Simpson	4,734	3,380
Choctaw	11,402	6,010	Lafayette	14,069	6,531	Smith	4,071	1,961
Claiborne	14,941	13,078	Lauderdale	8,717	5,358	Sunflower	1,102	new co.
Clarke	5,477	2,986	Lawrence	6,478	5,920	Tallahatchee	4,643	2,985
Coahoma	2,780	1,290	Leake	5,533	2,162	Tippah	20,741	9,444
Copiah	11,794	8,945	Lowndes	19,544	14,513	Tishemingo	15,490	6,681
Covington	3,338	2,717	Madison	18,173	15,530	Tunica	1,314	821
De Soto	19,042	7,002	Marion	4,410	3,630	Warren	18,121	15.820
Franklin	5,904	4,775	Marshall	29,689	17,526	Washington	8,389	7,287
Green	2,018	1,636	Monroe	21,172	9,250	Wayne	2,892	2,120
Hancock	3,672	3.367	Neshoba	4,728	2,437	Wilkinson	16.914	14,193
Harrison	4,875	new co.	Newton	4,465	2,527	Winston	7,956	4,650
Hinds	25,340	19,098	Noxubee	16,299	9,975	Yallabusha	17,258	12,248
Holmes	13,928	9,452	Oktibbeha	9,171	4,276	Yazoo	14,418	10,480
Issaquena	4,478	new co.	Panola	11,444	4,657			
						Total	606,555	375,651

Number of slaves in 1800, 3,489; in 1810, 17,088; in 1820, 32,814; in 1830, 65,659; in 1840, 195,211; in 1850, 309,898.

GOVERNMENT.—The governor is elected by the people for a term of two years, and can not hold office more than four years out of six; and in case of his death, resignation, or other inability, it is provided that the president of the senate shall perform the duties of governor, until another shall be duly qualified. The senate is composed of 32 members, elected for four years, half of the number being chosen biennially. The representatives are elected biennially, on the first Monday in November; the present number is 98, and can not exceed 100 members. The legislature meets biennially at Jackson, on the first Monday in January. The judicial power is vested in a high court of errors and appeals, consisting of three judges, chosen by the people for six years, one being chosen biennially; in a circuit court held in each county, the judges chosen by the people for four years; in a superior court of chancery, the chancellor chosen by the people of the whole state for six years; in a court of probate, the judge elected by the people of each county for two years. Every free white male citizen of the United States, 21 years of age, and who has resided in the state one year next preceding the election, and four months in the county, city, or town, in which he offers his vote, is deemed a qualified voter.

HISTORY.—De Soto traversed the Mississippi region in 1542, but made no settlement. La Salle visited it in 1681, having proceeded down the great valley from the lakes of the north. In 1698, D'Iberville, who was appointed governor of Louisiana, arrived with a colony, chiefly Canadians, and settled on Ship island. The next year he built Fort Biloxi, on the eastern side of Biloxi bay, which became the headquarters of the province. D'Iberville gave the name of Rosalie to the spot now called Natchez. That settlement was surprised and destroyed by the Natchez Indians, in 1729. The French were avenged, and destroyed or dispersed the whole tribe. The northern part of Mississippi was ceded to England by France, in 1763. The southern portion was ceded to England by Spain, and attached to Florida. A portion was retroceded to Spain in 1783. A large portion of the present state was erected into a territory in 1798. The Alabama territory was separated from it in 1817, and toward the close of that year Mississippi was admitted into the Union. The first constitution was adopted in 1817, and revised in 1832.

GOVERNORS OF MISSISSIPPI TERRITORY.

Winthrop Sargent...1798	Wm. C. C. Claiborne.1802	Robert Williams.....1805	David Holmes.....1809

GOVERNORS UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

David Holmes.....1818	Girard C. Brandon...1828	A. G. M'Nutt.....1838	John A. Quitman....1850
George Poindexter...1820	Abram M. Scott.....1832	T. M. Tucker.....1842	John J. Guion, Act. G.1851
Walter Leake.....1822	Hiram G. Runnels...1834	Albert G Brown.....1844	Henry S. Foote.....1852
David Holmes.....1826	Charles Lynch.....1836	Joseph W. Matthews.1848	

LOUISIANA.*

Louisiana is situated between 29° and 33° north latitude, and 88° 40′ and 94° 25′ west longitude from Greenwich; and is bounded north by Arkansas and Mississippi, east by Mississippi, from which it is separated by Mississippi and Pearl rivers, southeast and south by the gulf of Mexico, and west by Texas, from which it is separated in part by Sabine river. Its superficial area is 46,341 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The entire border of the state, from Pearl river to the Sabine, presents itself in a vast tract of irreclaimable sea marsh, from 20 to 30 miles in width, extending farthest inland in the regions between the streams; for it is a singular feature, in all the rivers which flow into this part of the Mississippi, that narrow strips of arable land, of greater or less width, occur on their banks, extending far beyond the interior limits of the sea-marsh; none, however, retain these elevated borders to the Mexican gulf. Contiguous to the sea-marsh are vast prairies, with which the former has often been confounded, in consequence of their similarity in appearance. On the waters of the Sabine, Calcasieu, and Mermentau, the prairies have generally a thin, sterile soil, while on the Vermilion, Teche, and Courtableau, they are almost uniformly good. The alluvial banks of the rivers of Louisiana, in their natural state, are more or less subject to inundation; but in many cases, where valuable tracts are situated in the rear of the elevated strips on their borders, in order to prevent them from being overflowed, artificial embankments, or dikes, called "levees," are raised, on the margins of the streams. These arable river-borders are usually composed of a fine, loose, rich soil; but the interior plains are hard, stiff, and less fertile. In some instances, when these plains are laid dry, the soil becomes almost as hard as stone. Taken as a whole, Louisiana consists of inundated and non-inundated lands. Above the mouth of Red river, the tract liable to periodical inundation is narrow; but below that stream it widens and expands like a fan, and finally embraces the whole gulf border. All of the soil, sufficiently elevated for cultivation within the inundated region, is of superior quality. The northern part of the state has an undulating surface. Northward from the prairies of Opelousas, and westward of the inundated border near the Mississippi, lies what has been denominated the "pine region." The surface has been somewhat broken into hills, though of moderate elevation, and within the tract some snow, and even waterfalls appear. The banks of the Vermilion, which are generally fertile, are high, broken, and diversified, above the termination of the timber near the sea-marsh. The country between the Mississippi, Iberville, and Pearl rivers, is an important part of the state. The southern or level portion is highly productive of the staple crops, and the northern portion, which is undulating, has been considered as the "garden of Louisiana."

Rivers, Lakes, and Bays.—Louisiana is intersected by numerous rivers, creeks (bayous), and lakes, dividing the state into a great number of islands, or "deltas," similar in some respects to those at the mouths of the Ganges, the Nile, and the Parana. The principal rivers are, the Mississippi, Pearl, Bogue Chitto, Chifuncte, Tangipao, Tickfoha, Lafourche, Teche, Vermilion, Tensas, Red, Mermentau, Atchafalaya, Amite, New, Calcasieu, Black, Bodcau, Dachcet, Saline, Wachita, Plaquemine, and the Sabine. The principal lakes are,

* So called by La Salle, who passed through this region in 1682, in honor of his royal patron, Louis XIV., of France.

LOUISIANA
ARKANSAS
TEXAS
MISSISSIPPI
ALABAMA
GULF OF MEXICO
Scale of Miles
10 20 30 40 50 Beaumont
Galveston Bay
Galveston
Sabine City
L. Sabine
Calcasieu L.
Mermentau Lake
Vermillion Bay
Atchafalaya B.
Lon. West from Washington
Lake Pontchartrain
Bay de la Riviere aux Chenes
Mouths of the Mississippi
Chandeleur Islands
Mississippi C.
Pascagoula R.
Leaf R.
Pearl R.
Columbia
Vicksburg
Jackson
Port Gibson
Natchez
Woodville
Natchitoches
Alexandria
Cheneyville
Marksville
Opelousas
Grand Coteau
Vermillion V.
Lisbon
Mansfield
Shreveport
Henderson
San Augustine
Mary
Cloutier V.
Cotile
Catahoula L.
Harrisonburg
Columbia
Winnsboro
Richmond
Providence
Farmersville
Russellville
Overton
Monroe
Saline Mill
Dugdemona R.
Red R.
Sabine River
Neches River
Prairie
Calcasieu R.
Bayou Nez Pique
Grand L.
Houma
Thibadeaux V.
Napoleon
Donaldson
Springfield
Covington
Greensburg
Franklinton
Clinton
Jackson
Point Coupee
Plaquemine
Franklin
Vidalia
Tensas R.
Mississippi R.
Boeuf R.
Macon R.
Ship
Cadda L.
Bellevieu
L. Bisteneau
Calcasieu L.
Sabine R.
Tache
Grand L.
Ship I.
Cat I.
Lake Borgne
New Orleans
Lafayette
Bayou Nez Pique
Atchafalaya R.
Mississippi R.
CADDO
BOSSIER
CLAIBORNE
BIENVILLE
UNION
MOREHOUSE
CARROLL
MADISON
FRANKLIN
CALDWELL
JACKSON
WACHITA
CATAHOULA
TENSAS
DESOTO
NATCHITOCHES
SABINE
RAPIDES
AVOYELLES
CONCORD
WEST FELICIANA
E. FELICIANA
ST. HELENA
WASHINGTON
ST. TAMMANY
ST. LANDRY
POINT COUPEE
E. BATON ROUGE
W. BATON ROUGE
BATON ROUGE
LIVINGSTON
IBERVILLE
ASCENSION
ST. JAMES
ST. JOHN BAPTIST
ST. CHARLES
ST. BERNARD
PLAQUEMINE
JEFFERSON
LA FOURCHE INTERIOR
TERRE BONNE
ST. MARYS
ST. MARTINS
LAFAYETTE
VERMILLION
CALCASIEU
ST. MARTINS
ASSUMPTION
18
17
16
15
14
13
12
32
31
30

Ponchartrain, Maurepas, Borgne, Chetimaches, Mermentau, Calcasieu, and Sabine. The chief bays are, Vermilion, Cote, Blanche, Atchafalaya, Timbalier, West, and Chandeleur.

Climate.—In the southern part of the state the climate, in the summer, is hot, sultry, and unhealthy; in the northern part it is more temperate and salubrious. The winters are usually mild, though snow sometimes falls at Opelousas, from ten to twelve inches deep: such instances, however, are rare. The creeks and ponds at New Orleans are sometimes closed with ice, and snow has been known to fall sufficiently deep for sleighing.

Cities and Chief Towns.—Baton Rouge is the seat of government. New Orleans* is a city. The other populous towns are, Alexandria, Concordia, Jackson, Natchitoches, Opelousas, and St. Francisville.

Productive Resources.—The staple products are, cotton, sugar, molasses, tobacco, and rice. This state also produces to some extent, horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, wool, hay, lumber, tar, turpentine, wheat, rye, oats, potatoes, Indian corn, wine, oranges, and figs.

Manufactures.—The manufactures of Louisiana are confined chiefly to the eastern portion of the state. In 1850 there were 1,021 manufacturing establishments producing $500 and upward annually. The articles manufactured are principally to supply the immediate wants of the community.

Railroads and Canals.—Louisiana is so well provided with navigable channels, that little attention has been given to artificial means of internal communication. The public mind, however, has recently been awakened to the subject, and we may confidently predict that this state will ere long be traversed by iron bands, connecting New Orleans with important points within her own borders, and extending to other states. At present there are but about 50 miles of railroad and 100 miles of canal in the state.

Commerce.—The exports and imports of Louisiana are about $70,000,000

* New Orleans, sometimes called the "Crescent City," from its form, bending parallel with the Mississippi, is situated on the north bank of that river, 100 miles from its entrance into the gulf of Mexico, 1,185 miles below the mouth of the Missouri, and 1,172 miles from Washington. Its position and appearance are both singularly different from those of other American cities. The ground, as it recedes from the river, descends by a gentle inclination, causing the houses, when viewed from a point not much above the level of high-water, to seem to rise immediately from it. A "levee," or dike, forms a margin between the city and the river, and protects the former from inundation by the latter. It is built of wood, 200 feet wide, and extends for four miles, presenting a most animated scene of commercial prosperity. Within, not only the houses, but the inhabitants, are of many descriptions. Except New York, no city includes Americans from so many different states, while the number of blacks, with the French and Spanish Creoles, and the foreigners, is still greater. These representatives of many nations are drawn to New Orleans by its geographical and commercial relation to the West Indies, South America, Mexico, and the southern parts of North America. The Creole citizens are descendants of the French, Spanish, and Germans, who originally founded and peopled the city, and constitute a large portion of the population. The position of New Orleans, with regard to the interior of the United States, is still more important. Situated near the mouth of the great river of the American continent, the Mississippi, with its immense confluents, the Ohio and the Missouri, almost the whole trade of those streams, and of their thousand tributaries, flows toward this point, as to a vast receiving and distributing reservoir. Hence the exports of New Orleans are exceeded by those of no other American city, New York excepted. The great staples of the southern and western states, sugar, cotton, wheat, flour, and corn, are the articles chiefly shipped from this port. The harbor is excellent, deep, and spacious. Ships, and vessels of every description, from the flatboat of the Mississippi to the magnificent ocean-steamer, here congregate, or enliven the scene, as they move from point to point. From the city to the bar, near the gulf, 100 miles below, the river has an average depth of 100 feet, affording anchorage for several miles along the wharves. The bed of the river, and its banks toward the mouth, are gradually rising. In 1722 there were 25 feet of water on the bar. In 1767 there were but 20, and now there are but 9 feet. The present mouth of the river is three miles beyond the mouth of 1724.

The city is gradually extending toward Lake Pontchartrain on the north, which communicates with the Mississippi by a canal, the Bayou St. John, and a railroad six miles long, and with the gulf of Mexico, by Lake Borgne and intermediate passages. The Mexican Gulf railroad communicates with Proctorsville, 27 miles distant. From the nature of the commercial advantages which New Orleans possesses, it is apparent that its prosperity is almost unlimited, and is the necessary result of the settlement of the vast region of the valley of the Mississippi. It is now the sixth city in population, and the third in commerce, in the Union, and perhaps would already have held a higher rank, but from the check it receives from the prevalence of yellow fever, and other maladies, consequent upon its situation. There were formerly three municipalities and the city of Lafayette, with distinct councils for the management of internal affairs, in the geographical limits of the city; these were consolidated in 1852 under one municipal government. This city was also the capital of Louisiana until 1849, when the seat of government was removed to Baton Rouge. It contains churches of various ages and styles of architecture; hospitals, charitable institutions, theatres, banks, warehouses, hotels, and the United States branch mint, a large building, 108 feet deep, 282 feet long, and three stories nigh; also the University of Louisiana, and many excellent schools. The city is supplied with water, elevated by steam from the Mississippi into a reservoir, and thence distributed through iron pipes.

The population of New Orleans in 1763 was 3,190; in 1785, 4,980; in 1810, 17,242; in 1820, 27,176; in 1830, 46,310; in 1840, 102,193; in 1850, 116,348. It was first settled in 1722.

References
17 Verandah Hotel
18 Orleans Houl
19 Banks Arcade
20 Custom House
21 Orleans Theatre
22 American „
23 St. Philips „
References
1 New Mer. Exchange
Merchants Exch.
2 & Post Office
3 State House
4 Court House
5 Charity Hospital
6 Mint
8 La. State Bank
9 Bank of Louisiana
10 City Bank
11 Canal Bank
13 Mer. & Traders „
14 St. Charles Hotel
15 St. Louis Hotel
16 City Hotel
NEW ORLEANS
Rail Roads
Canals

annually. Its coasting and river trade amounts to about double that sum. Shipping owned within the state is about 250,000 tons.

EDUCATION.—The principal collegiate institutions in Louisiana are, the St. Charles college, at Grande Coteau, founded in 1833, the Baton Rouge college, in 1838, the Franklin college, at Opelousas, in 1839, the Centenary college of Louisiana, at Jackson, in 1841, and the University of Louisiana, at New Orleans. There are about 100 academies and 600 common schools in the state.

POPULATION.—In 1732, about 7,500; in 1810, 76,556; in 1820, 153,407; in 1830, 215,739; in 1840 and 1850, by parishes, as follows:—

PARISHES.	1850.	1840.	PARISHES.	1850.	1840.	PARISHES.	1850.	1840.
Ascension	10,752	6,951	Feliciana W.	13,245	10,910	Sabine	4.515	new p.
Assumption	10,538	7,141	Franklin	3.251	new p.	St. Bernard	3,802	3,237
Avoyelles	9,326	6,616	Iberville	12,279	8,495	St. Charles	5,120	4,700
Baton Rouge E.	11,977	8,138	Jackson	5.566	new p.	St. Helena	4.561	3,525
Baton Rouge W.	6,270	4,688	Jefferson	25,091	10,470	St. James	11,098	8,548
Bienville	5,539	new p.	Lafayette	6,720	7,841	St. John Baptist.	7,317	5.776
Bossier	6,962	new p.	La Fourche	9,533	7,303	St. Landry	22.253	15,233
Caddo	8,884	5.282	Livingston	3,385	2,315	St. Martin's	11,765	8,674
Calcasieu	3,914	2,057	Madison	8,773	5,142	St. Mary's	13,700	8,950
Caldwell	2,815	2,017	Morehouse	3,913	new p.	St. Tammany	6,364	4,598
Carroll	8.789	4,237	Nachitoches	14,201	14,350	Tensas	9,040	new p.
Catahoula	7,132	4,955	Orleans	119,461	102,193	Terrebonne	7,724	4,410
Claiborne	7,471	6,185	Ouachita	5,008	4,640	Union	8,203	1,838
Concordia	7,758	9,414	Plaquemines	7,390	5,060	Vermilion	3,409	new p.
De Soto	8,019	new p.	Point Coupee	11,339	7,898	Washington	3,408	2,649
Feliciana E.	13,598	11,893	Rapides	16,561	14,132			
						Total	517,739	352,411

No. of slaves in 1800, 3,489; in 1810, 34,660; in 1820, 69,064; in 1830, 109,588; in 1840, 168,452; in 1850, 244,786.

GOVERNMENT.—The legislative power is vested in a senate and house of representatives. The senators, 32 in number, are elected by the people, by districts, for the term of four years, one half being chosen every two years; the representatives are elected by the people, by parishes, for a term of two years. The number of representatives can not be more than 100, nor less than 70, divided among the parishes, according to their total population, but each parish is entitled to a representative. The executive power is vested in a governor, who is elected by the people, for a term of four years, and is ineligible for the next four years. The elections are held in November, and the legislature meets biennially at Baton Rouge the third Monday in January. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court of five judges, which has appellate jurisdiction only, and such inferior courts as the legislature may establish. The chief justice is elected for ten years, and the associate judges for eight years. The right of suffrage is extended to all white males, above 21 years of age, who have resided in the state one year, and in the parish six months, next preceding the election. All citizens are disfranchized, both as to voting and holding office, who may fight, or in any way be connected with fighting, a duel, with a citizen of the state, either in or out of it. The constitution provides for the establishment of free public schools throughout the state.

HISTORY.—Louisiana embraces a part of the ancient territory bearing this name, once so comprehensive, including the entire valley of the Mississippi and its tributary streams, consisting of all the present states of Texas, Louisiana, Alabama, Mississippi, Tennessee, Kentucky, Ohio, Indiana, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Illinois. Iowa, Missouri, Arkansas, and California, a portion of Mexico, North Carolina, Virginia, and Pennsylvania, and all the undefined regions between the Rio del Norte and the northern sources of the Mississippi, extending westward to the Pacific. It also constitutes a portion of Florida, as named by Ponce de Leon, in 1512. The first permanent settlement in the present Louisiana was made at New Orleans, in 1718, by the emigrants of the "Mississippi Company," under the auspices of John Law, who received a royal grant the year before of a complete monopoly of the trade and mines of the territory for twenty-seven years. In 1732, for the want of success, this company surrendered its chartered rights to Louisiana, and the control of its commerce reverted to the king. In 1763, France was compelled to cede to England, not

only Canada and Acadia, but all of Louisiana east of the Mississippi, as far south as the river D'Iberville, and thence all their territory north and east of a line running along that stream and Amite river, through Lakes Maurepas and Ponchartrain, to the Mexican gulf. The same year she formed a treaty with Spain, surrendering the remaining portion of Louisiana, not ceded to England, and thus deprived herself of all her possessions on the continent of North America. In 1800, it was retroceded to France by a secret treaty, who formally took possession of the country, in 1803, and immediately sold it to the United States for $15,000,000. In the meantime the Revolution had occurred, and all of the former territory of Louisiana, lying east of the Mississippi, which had been ceded to England in 1763, had also become a part of the Union. By an act of Congress, in 1804, Louisiana was definitely subdivided; the northern part, above latitude 31°, was called "The Territory of Mississippi," and the lower division, "The Territory of Orleans." In 1811, the latter was authorized to form a constitution of government, which, together with that portion of West Florida west of Pearl river, was formally received into the Union, in 1812, under the name of Louisiana, as a sovereign state. Subsequently to this other lands were annexed to this state, until it received its present bounds. The original constitution was revised in 1845, and a new one adopted in 1852. Motto of the seal, "Union and Confidence."

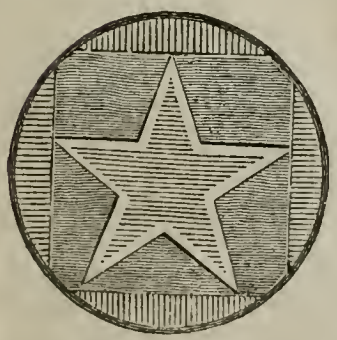
GOVERNORS OF LOUISIANA.

William C. C. Claiborne, appointed 1804, Governor of the Territory of Louisiana

UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

Wm. C. C. Claiborne.1812	Peter Derbigny.....1828	Edward D. White ...1834	Joseph Walker.....1850
James Villere 1816	A. Bauvais, Act. Gov.1829	André B. Roman.....1838	Paul O. Hebert.....1853
Thos. B. Robertson..1820	Jacques Dupré, do..1830	Alexander Mouton...1842	
Henry Johnson.....1824	André B. Roman....1830	Isaac Johnson.....1846	

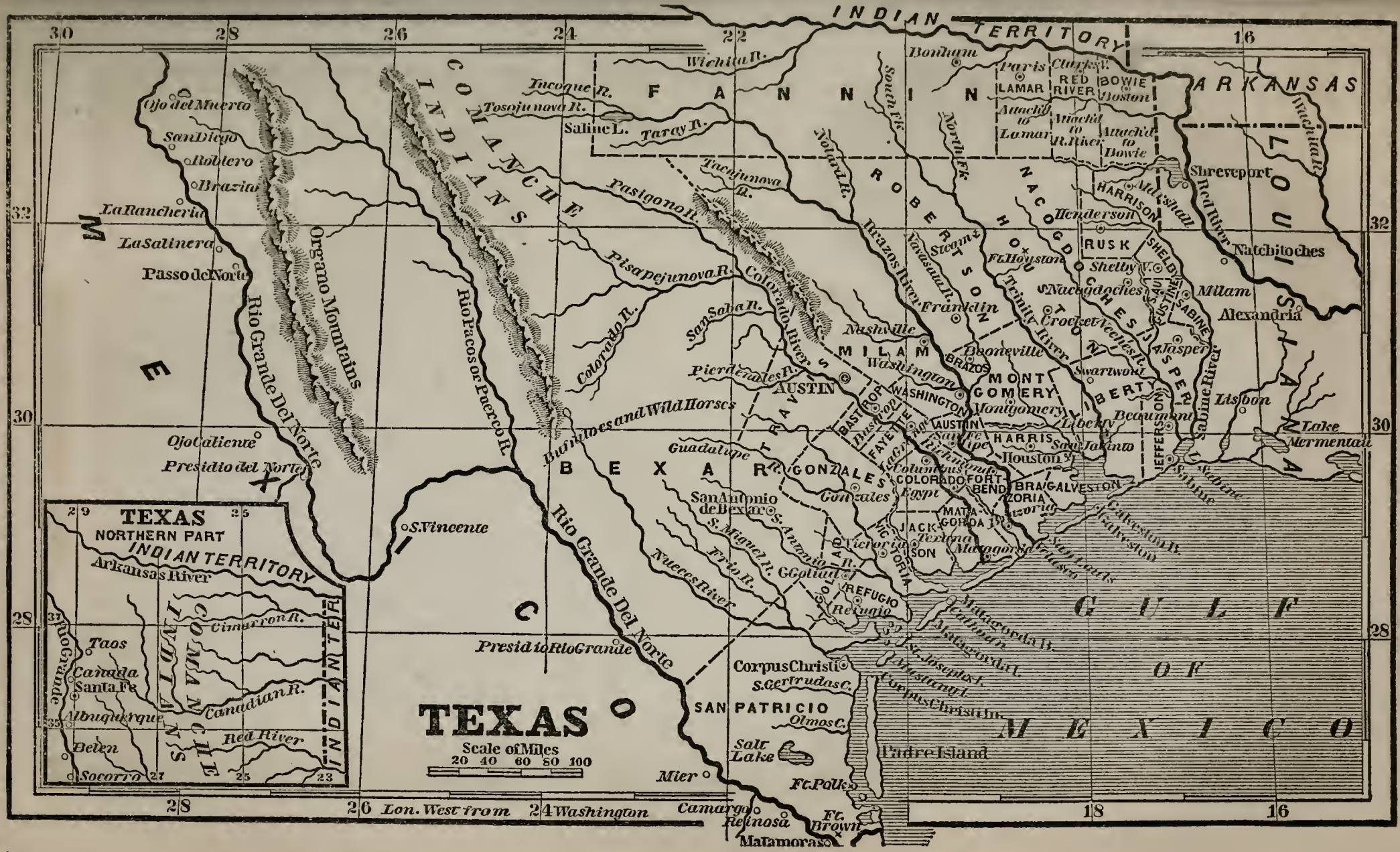
TEXAS.*



The state of Texas lies between 26° and 36° 30′ north latitude, and 93° 20′ and 107° west longitude from Greenwich; and is bounded north by New Mexico, and the Indian Territory, the latter of which is separated in part by Red river, east by Arkansas and Louisiana, the latter being separated in part by the Sabine, southeast by the gulf of Mexico, and southwest by Mexico, from which it is separated by the Rio Grande. Its superficial area is 225,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The general aspect of this state is that of a vast inclined plain, gradually sloping eastward from the mountains on the westerly side to the coast. From the borders of the Mexican gulf, and ranging inland from 30 to 75 miles, the surface is even; but, unlike any of the other southern states, it is remarkably free from marshes, or swamps. The country between the Sabine and Galveston bay consists mostly of barren prairies, except along the streams, where it is woody and flat. The remaining portion of the coast, southwestward, is low and sandy, and, for some distance inland, the eye is relieved by beautiful prairies, insulated groves, and meandering streams. The soil of this region is mostly, if not wholly, made up of allu-

* According to tradition, so called, from the Camanches, who, upon discovering the country, exclaimed, "Tehas! Tehas!!" which, in their language, signified, "The happy hunting-ground." According to other authority, it was named Texas, by the Spanish commander, De Leon, who visited the Asimais Indians of this region in 1689, to commemorate the kindness he received from them, the appellation, in their dialect, signifying "friends."


INDIAN TERRITORY
ARKANSAS
LOUISIANA
MEXICO
GULF OF MEXICO
TEXAS
Scale of Miles
20 40 60 80 100
Lon. West from Washington
Wichita R.
Bonham
Paris
Clarksville
RED RIVER
BOWIE
Boston
LAMAR
Attached to Lamar
Attached to R. River
Attached to Bowie
Incoque R.
Tosojunova R.
Saline L.
Taray R.
South Fk.
North Fk.
Nolana R.
FANNIN
ROBERTSON
NACOGDOCHES
HOUSTON
HARRISON
Marshall
Shreveport
Red River
Natchitoches
Henderson
RUSK
SHELBY
Shelby V.
Nacogdoches
SABINE
Milam
Alexandria
Ft. Houston
Stegmt
Vavasau R.
Franklin
Trinity River
Crockett
Neechesit
JASPER
Jasper
Pasigono R.
Tacajunova R.
Brazos River
Pisapejunova R.
Colorado R.
San Saba R.
Nashville
MILAM
Washington
Boonville
BRAZOS
MONTGOMERY
Montgomery
Swartwout
LIBERTY
Beaumont
Lisbon
Sabine River
Lake Mermentau
Pierdenales R.
AUSTIN
WASHINGTON
Bastrop
Austin
San Felipe
Lacky
San Jacinto
HARRIS
Houston
JEFFERSON
Sabine
Guadalupe R.
GONZALES
Columbus
Richmond
FORT-BEND
COLORADO
Egypt
BRAZORIA
GALVESTON
Galveston
Galveston B.
San Luis
Matagorda B.
Matagorda
Victoria
Victoria
JACKSON
Texana
Matagorda
REFUGIO
Refugio
Nueces River
Trio R.
Goliad
Goliad
San Antonio R.
San Antonio de Bexar
S. Antonio
S. Miguel R.
Rio Grande Del Norte
Rio Pacos or Puerco R.
Presidio Rio Grande
Corpus Christi
S. Gertrudas C.
SAN PATRICIO
Olmos C.
Salt Lake
Mier
Camargo
Reinosa
Ft. Brown
Matamoras
Padre Island
Corpus Christi bay
Aransas bay
Aransas I.
Mustang I.
Matagorda I.
Ojo del Muerto
San Diego
Roblero
Brazia
La Rancheria
La Salinera
Passo del Norte
Organo Mountains
Rio Grande Del Norte
Ojo Caliente
Presidio del Norte
S. Vincente
Burrilos and Wild Horses
COMANCHE INDIANS
BEXAR
COAHUILA
TEXAS
NORTHERN PART
INDIAN TERRITORY
Arkansas River
Cimarron R.
Taos
Canada
Santa Fe
Canadian R.
Albuquerque
Red River
Belen
Socorro
Rio Grande
NEW MEXICO
COMANCHE INDIANS
INDIAN TER.

vion, which is often remarkably fertile, and of great depth. Next in order comes the "rolling country," which extends inland from 150 to 200 miles further, presenting a delightful country, diversified by fertile prairies, pleasant woodlands, and numerous rivulets, fed from the purest springs. Limestone and sandstone form the common sub-strata of this region, the surface soil being a rich, friable loam, mixed more or less with sand. The upper, or mountainous region, situated chiefly in the western section of the state, forms a part of the great Sierra Madre, or Mexican Alps, the remotest extremity of which consists of an elevated table-land, "where the prairies not unfrequently resemble the vast steppes of Asia, except in their superior fertility."

Mountains.—The chief mountains are, the Guadalupe and Organ ranges, which lie in the western part of the state.

Rivers, Lakes, and Bays.—The principal rivers are, the Rio del Norte or Rio Grande, Neches, Trinity, Brazos de Dios, Colorado, Guadalupe, La Vaca, San Antonio, Nueces, Salado, Sabine, Red, and San Jacinto. Sabine and Caddo lakes lie partly in this state. The chief bays are, the Galveston, Matagorda, Copano, Espiritu Santo, and Corpus Christi.

Islands.—The principal of these are, Galveston, Matagorda, St. Joseph, Mustang, and Padre.

Climate.—The climate is decidedly more healthy than that of Louisiana, or of any of the other gulf states; still, on the low, alluvial coast, intermittents are prevalent in summer and autumn, but the yellow fever is rarely known. From March till October but little rain falls, though gusts of wind, with thunder, frequently occur. During the rest of the year wet weather generally prevails. The winters are warm and mild on the coast, and for some distance inland snow is seldom seen, except on the higher mountains, or table-lands. From April to September the thermometer near the coast ranges from 63° to 100° Fahrenheit. The greatest heats, however, are tempered by strong and constant breezes, which begin to blow soon after the rising of the sun, and continue until afternoon. The nights throughout the middle region are refreshing and cool during the year.

Chief Towns.—Austin is the seat of government. The principal towns are, Galveston, Houston, Nacogdoches, San Augustine, Washington, Corpus Christi, El Passo, and San Antonio de Bexar.

Productive Resources.—The chief products of this state are, horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, wool, cotton, tobacco, oranges, figs, wine, olives, dates, sugar-cane, wheat, rye, barley, oats, rice, potatoes, and Indian corn. Cotton and sugar-cane are the agricultural staples. The mineral and fossil resources are, silver, iron, coal, bitumen, nitre, granite, limestone, slate, and gypsum. Salt may be manufactured from numerous lakes and springs. Buffalo and wild horses are found in vast numbers on the prairies.

Manufactures.—Texas at present is wholly an agricultural state; but it possesses all the pre-requisites for becoming eminently a manufacturing one. Its water-power is abundant; its labor cheap; and in its cotton, wool, iron, &c., may be found material to supply the demand of a manufacturing industry to an almost unlimited extent.

Railroads and Canals.—Texas is as yet without these important aids to internal commerce. Several railroads have been projected; among them may be mentioned, one extending from Red river to the gulf of Mexico.

Commerce.—The direct foreign commerce of Texas is small, amounting, in 1851, to but about $170,000. Its coasting-trade, however, is of more importance. The shipping owned within the state amounts to about 50,000 tons.

Education.—The principal collegiate institutions in Texas are, the Baylor university, at Independence, founded in 1844; the University of San Augustine; Wesleyan college, at San Augustine; Rutersville college, and University

of Nacogdoches. Its public school fund is derived principally from the school lands, and common schools are being established throughout the state.

POPULATION.—In 1820, was about 3,000; in 1850, by counties, as follows:—

COUNTIES.	1850.	COUNTIES.	1850.	COUNTIES.	1850.	COUNTIES.	1850.
Anderson	2,884	Denton	641	Jasper	1,767	Robertson	934
Angelina	1,165	De Witt	1,716	Jefferson	1,836	Rusk	8,148
Austin	3,841	Fannin	3,788	Kaufman	1,047	Sabine	2,498
Bestrop	3,099	Fayette	3,756	Lamar	3,978	San Augustine	3,647
Bexar	6,052	Fort Bend	2,533	Lavacca	1,571	San Patricio	200
Bowic	2,912	Galveston	4,529	Leon	1,946	Shelby	4,239
Brazoria	4,841	Gillespie	1,240	Liberty	2,522	Smith	4,292
Brazos	614	Goliad	648	Limestone	2,608	Titus	3,636
Burleson	1,713	Gonzalez	1,492	Matagorda	2,124	Travis	3,138
Caldwell	1,329	Grayson	2,008	Medina	909	Tyler	1,894
Calhoun	1,110	Grimes	4,008	Milan	2,907	Upshur	3,394
Cameron, Starr & Webb	8,541	Guadalupe	1,511	Montgomery	2,384	Van Zant	1,348
		Harris	4,668	Nacogdoches	5,193	Victoria	2,019
Cass	4,991	Harrison	11,822	Navarro	3,843	Walker	3,964
Cherokee	6,673	Hays	387	Newton	1,689	Washington	5,983
Collin	1,950	Henderson	1,237	Nueces	698	Wharton	1,752
Colorado	2,257	Hopkins	2,623	Panola	3,871	Williamson	1,568
Comal	1,723	Houston	2,727	Polk	2,349		
Cook	220	Hunt	1,520	Red River	3,906	Total	212,592
Dallas	2,743	Jackson	996	Refugio	288		

Number of slaves in 1850, 50,161.

GOVERNMENT.—The legislative power is vested in a senate and house of representatives. The senators are elected by the people, by districts, for the term of four years, one half being chosen biennially; their number is not to be less than nineteen, nor more than thirty-one. The representatives are elected for two years, by the people, by counties; the number is not to be less than forty-five, nor more than ninety. The executive power is vested in a governor, elected by the people, at the time and places of elections for members of the legislature; he holds his office for the term of two years, but is not eligible for more than four years in any term of six years. At the same time, a lieutenant governor is chosen for the same term, who is president of the senate, and succeeds the governor in case of death, resignation, &c., of the latter. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court of three judges, in district courts, and in such inferior courts as the legislature may, from time to time, establish. The judges of the supreme and district courts are appointed by the governor, and hold their offices for six years. The right of suffrage is granted to every free white male person over the age of 21 years, a citizen of the United States, who shall have resided in the state one year next preceding an election, and the last six months within the district in which he offers to vote. The creation, extension, or renewal of any banking or discounting company is prohibited. There is no imprisonment for debt.

HISTORY.—The present state of Texas embraces a part of the extensive country of Louisiana, as claimed by France, prior to the year 1763. It also comprised a province of Mexico, in the Provincias Internas, and remained as such, under Spanish, and subsequently under Mexican rule, until it declared its independence, in 1836. The first post in this country was established at Bexar, by the Spaniards, in 1681. In the year 1685, La Salle, in attempting to establish a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi, was deceived by his reckoning, and landed at the head of Matagorda bay, within the present limits of Texas, where the settlement of St. Louis was formed. Although this little colony was soon after broken up by the Indians, yet, as the standard of France had first been planted there, this region was thenceforth claimed as an appendage to Louisiana. With the exception of one or two unimportant missions, no other settlements were made in Texas until 1692, when a Spanish colony was planted at San Antonio de Bexar. Owing to various circumstances, it remained almost entirely unknown to the rest of the world, until the breaking out of the first Mexican revolution, in 1810. The only settlements of importance at that time were those of San Antonio de Bexar, Nacogdochès, and La Bahia, or Goliad.

From the unsettled state of the country immigration was prevented, and it was not until after the second Mexican revolution, when she achieved her independence, in 1821, that any substantial advances were made toward further colonization. From this period emigrants, in large numbers, mostly from the United States, continued to flow into Texas, under the encouragement of Mexico. When the federal constitution was overthrown, in 1834, the people of Texas refused to acknowledge the new government. They had sued for admission into the Mexican confederacy, as an independent state in 1832, but were refused, as Mexico was jealous of the growing power of the province. In 1835, a Mexican army was sent to reduce them to submission. In March, 1836, Texas declared itself an independent republic, and elected David G. Burnett president. A constitution was formed, having for its basis that of the United States. The battle of San Jacinto was fought on the 21st of April, between the Texan troops, under General Houston, and the Mexican army, under President Santa Aña, in which the latter was signally defeated. General Houston was elected president of the republic in September following. It sought for admission into the Union, which was granted by an act of Congress passed in February, 1845. On the 4th of July following the people of Texas, in convention, adopted a state constitution, and it became an independent state of our Union.

PRESIDENTS OF THE REPUBLIC OF TEXAS.

Samuel Houston.....1836 Mirabeau B. Lamar..1838 Samuel Houston.....1842 Anson Jones.....1844

GOVERNORS OF THE STATE OF TEXAS.

J. P. Henderson.....1846 George T. Wood....1848 Peter H. Bell.....1850

ARKANSAS.

The state of Arkansas lies between 33° and 36° 30′ north latitude, and 89° 30′ and 94° 30′ west longitude from Greenwich; and is bounded north and northeast by Missouri, east by Mississippi river, which separates it from Mississippi and Tennessee, south by Louisiana, southwest by Texas, and west by the Indian territory. Its superficial area is 52,198 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—In the eastern part of the state, say a distance of 100 miles from the Mississippi, the country is low and wet, and much of the land, except along the borders of the streams, is subject to inundation. With the exception of some prairie, the eastern portion is covered with dense forests. The soil here, where arable, is of the most productive kind. In the middle of the state the surface is uneven and broken, and in the western parts it is mountainous and hilly, interspersed by timber lands, prairies, and barren plains. In some respects, Arkansas may be regarded as a barren country, although along the margins of the streams the soil is generally fertile, but remote from these it is sterile and poor.

Mountains.—The chief mountains in this state are the Ozark, which lie at its northwest corner, rising to a height of some 2,000 feet. A range of hills, called the Black mountains, runs between the Arkansas and White rivers, extending from the latter to the western border of the state.

Rivers and Springs.—The principal rivers that traverse this state are, the Arkansas, Wachita, White, and St. Francis. The Mississippi waters its almost entire boundary on the east. Toward the source of the Wachita there are hot springs, which are much resorted to by invalids. Their waters are pure and

ARKANSAS
Scale of miles
10 30 50 70
MISSOURI
TEXAS
LOUISIANA
MISSISSIPPI
INDIAN TERRITORY
BENTON
CARROLL
MARION
FULTON
LAWRENCE
RANDOLPH
GREENE
MADISON
SEARCY
IZARD
WASHINGTON
NEWTON
INDEPENDENCE
JACKSON
POINSETT
CRAWFORD
FRANKLIN
JOHNSON
VAN BUREN
POPE
CONWAY
WHITE
ST FRANCIS
CRITTENDEN
SCOTT
YELL
PERRY
PULASKI
MONROE
PHILLIPS
MONTGOMERY
SALINE
HOT SPRING
ARKANSAS
POLK
PIKE
CLARKE
JEFFERSON
SEVIER
DALLAS
DESHA
HEMPSTEAD
BRADLEY
DREW
CHICOT
WACHITA
LA FAYETTE
UNION
ASHLEY
Neosho
McDonald
Forsyth
Rockbridge
Van Buren
Hartville
Gasconade R.
Big Black R.
St. Francis R.
Current R.
White R.
Bentonville
Carrollton
Yellville
Fulton
Pocahontas
Canton
Ganes V.
White Sulphur Spr.
Huntsville
Athens
Smith V.
Fayetteville
Jasper
Lebanon
Rich Woods
Batesville
Steam Mill
Elizabeth
Bolivar
Osceola
Clinton
Lit. Red R.
Van Buren
Ozark
Clarks V.
Dover
Searcy
Marion
Boonville
Dardanelle
Petit Jean C.
Lewisburg
White Sulph. Spr.
Mt. Vernon
Danville
Perryville
Clarendon
Sulphur Spr.
LITTLE ROCK
Rock Roe
Helena
Collegeville
Whittington
Benton
Lawrence V.
Montgomery
Hot Springs
Caddo C.
St. Marys
Pine Bluffs
Arkansas River
Sulphur Spr.
Murfreesboro
Archidelphia
Nicotto
Arkansas
Greenville
Lit. Missouri R.
Saline R.
Bellville
Paraclita
Washington
Harrison
Steam
Laynesport
Fulton
Camden
Warren
Columbia
Lewisville
Eldorado
Walnut Hill
Princeton
Caddo Lake
Shreveport
Monroe
Vicksburg
Columbia
Port Gibson
Red River
Natchitoches
Harrisonburg
Natchez
Mississippi Riv.
Wachita Riv.
17 16 15 14
37 36 35 34 33 32
16 Lon. West from 15 Washington

limpid, possessing little or no mineral properties, and, though varying considerably in the range of their temperature, sometimes rises nearly to the boiling point.

Climate.—The climate of the easterly part, particularly on the borders of the rivers, is generally moist and unhealthy; but in the middle and westerly portions it is regarded by the settlers as salubrious. The climate of the southerly part resembles that of Louisiana, while that at the north is similar to Missouri.

Cities and Chief Towns.—The city of Little Rock is the seat of government. The other populous towns are, Arkansas, Batesville, Columbia, Fayetteville, Helena, Benton, and Jackson.

Productive Resources.—The staple products are, cotton, wool, lumber, peltry, wheat, oats, potatoes, tobacco, Indian corn, cattle, horses, and mules. The southern portion of the state is well adapted to the cultivation of cotton. Its mineral productions consists of iron ore, lead, gypsum, salt, and coal.

Manufactures.—The manufactures of Arkansas are confined principally to supplying the immediate wants of the people. The number of manufacturing establishments in the state in 1850 was 271, producing $500 and upward annually.

Commerce.—Arkansas has no direct foreign commerce, its staples being shipped principally at New Orleans; but its river trade is considerable.

Education.—There is no collegiate institution in Arkansas. It has about 15 academies and 200 common schools.

Population.—In 1820, 14,273; in 1830, 30,388; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows:—

Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.
Arkansas	3,245	1,346	Independence	7,767	3,669	Pope	4,710	2,850
Ashley	2,058	new co.	Izard	3,213	2,224	Pulaski	5,658	5,350
Benton	3,710	2,228	Jackson	3,086	1,540	Prairie	2,097	new co.
Bradley	3,829	new co.	Jefferson	5,834	2,566	Randolph	3,275	2,196
Conway	3,583	2,892	Johnson	5,227	3,433	Saline	3,901	2,061
Crittenden	2,648	1,561	Lawrence	5,274	2,835	Scott	3,083	1,694
Chicot	5,115	3,806	Lafayette	5,220	2,200	Searcy	1,979	936
Clark	3,995	2,309	Madison	4,823	2,775	Sevier	4,240	2,810
Crawford	7,960	4,266	Marion	2,302	1,325	St. Francis	4,479	2,499
Carroll	4,614	2,844	Mississippi	2,368	1,410	Union	10,298	2,889
Dallas	6,877	new co.	Monroe	2,049	936	Van Buren	2,864	1,518
Desha	2,900	1,598	Montgomery	1,958	new co.	Wachita	9,591	new co.
Drew	3,275	new co.	Newton	1,758	new co.	Washington	9,849	7,148
Fulton	1,819	new co.	Perry	978	new co.	White	2,619	929
Franklin	3,929	2,665	Phillips	6,935	3,547	Yell	3,341	new co.
Greene	2,593	1,586	Pike	1,861	969			
Hempstead	7,672	4,921	Poinsett	2,308	1,320	Total	209,639	97,574
Hot Springs	3,609	1,907	Polk	1,263	new co.			

Number of slaves in 1820, 1,617; in 1830, 4,576; in 1840, 19,935; in 1850, 46,982.

Government.—The legislative power is vested in a general assembly, consisting of a senate and house of representatives. The senators are elected by the people, by districts, for the term of four years; the representatives by counties, for two years. The senate consists of not less than 17, nor more than 33 members; the house of representatives of not less than 54, nor more than 100 members. The general elections are holden every two years, on the first Monday in October. The executive power is vested in a governor, elected by the people once in four years; but he is not eligible for more than eight years in any term of twelve years. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, of three justices; in circuit courts; in county courts, and justices of the peace. The judges of the supreme and circuit courts are chosen by the general assembly, of the former for eight, of the latter for four years. Justices of the peace are elected by the people for two years. Judges of the county courts are chosen by the justices of the peace. Every white male citizen of the United States, (excepting soldiers and seamen of the army or navy), a resident of the state six months, is entitled to vote at elections.

History.—Arkansas was originally a part of the province of Louisiana, and constituted a portion of that undefined region lying west of the Mississippi,

which received not the tread of the white man until the present contury, unless visited by De Soto, who explored the valley of the Mississippi in 1541. In the arrangement of territories it was separated from Louisiana and attached to Missouri. It remained in this connection till 1819, when it was erected into a distinct territory, under its present name. The Rocky mountains were its western limits; but by congressional acts in 1824, and by subsequent treaties with the Cherokee Indians, its area was curtailed. In 1836, a convention of the representatives of the people assembled at Little Rock, and adopted a state constitution; and the same year Arkansas was admitted into the Union as an independent state.

GOVERNORS OF ARKANSAS TERRITORY.

James Miller.....1819 George Izard.....1825 John Pope.....1829 William S. Fulton...1835

GOVERNORS OF THE STATE.

James S. Conway.....1836 Samuel Adams, Acting Gov....1844 John S. Roane.....1848
Archibald Yell.....1840 Thomas S. Drew.....1844 Elias N. Conway.....1852

TENNESSEE.

The state of Tennessee lies between 36° and 37° 42′ north latitude, and 81° 30′ and 90° 10′ west longitude from Greenwich; and is bounded north by Kentucky and Virginia, southeast by North Carolina, from which it is separated by the Iron and Unaka mountains, south by Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, and west by Arkansas and Missouri, from which it is separated by the Mississippi river. Its superficial area is 45,600 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—This state is widely diversified in surface, soil, and climate. The eastern portion abounds in mountains and hills, some of them lofty, and presenting scenery peculiarly grand and picturesque. The middle section is less bold in its features, though hilly, and gradually becomes undulating, and even level, as we approach the Ohio. The geological formation is wholly secondary, except a small portion of the eastern part, which is transition, and numerous spots of alluvion on the banks of the streams. The soil of the western division is black and rich; in the middle there are large quantities of excellent land; and in the eastern or mountainous parts the soil is generally thin, except in the valleys, where it is exuberantly fertile.

Mountains.—Of these, the Cumberland, or Great Laurel ridge, is the most remarkable. Stone, Yellow-Iron, Smoky, and Unaka mountains join each other, and form in a direction nearly northeast and southwest, the boundary between North Carolina and this state. Northwesterly of these, and separated from each other by valleys from five to fifteen miles wide, are Bay's, Clinch, and Powell's mountains, and Copper and Welling's ridges.

Rivers.—The principal rivers are, the Mississippi, Cumberland, Tennessee, Clinch, Holston, Duck, French, Broad, Hiwasse, Nolichucky, Reelfoot, Tellico, Obion, Elk, Forked Deer, and Wolf.

Climate.—The climate is comparatively mild, and generally healthy. On some low grounds, however, in the western part of the state, bilious attacks and agues prevail more or less during the summer and autumn months. In the eastern division, the temperature is so modified by the mountain air on one side, and the breezes from the Mexican gulf on the other, that its climate, perhaps,

TENNESSEE
Scale of Miles.
10 30 50 70
Lon. West from Washington
12 11 10 9 8 7 6
37
36
35
ILLINOIS
MISSOURI
KENTUCKY
VIRGINIA
N. CAROLINA
GEORGIA
ALABAMA
MISSISSIPPI
SOUTH CAROLINA
Ohio R.
Mississippi R.
Tennessee R.
Cumberland R.
Green R.
Elk R.
Coosa R.
Cumberland Mountains
Smoky Mts.
Cairo
Salem
Hopkinsville
Franklin
Clinton
Mt. Vernon
Manchester
Florence
Huntsville
Decatur
Holly Springs
Memphis
Spring Place
Clayton
Dalton
Jefferson
Blountville
Murphy
Henderson V.
Knoxville
Kingston
Jacksboro
Jonesboro
Greenville
Rutledge
Dandridge
Newport
Sevier V.
Maryville
Athens
Cleveland
Benton
Dallas
Chattanooga
Jasper
Winchester
Fayetteville
Shelbyville
Manchester
Woodbury
Murfreesboro
Nashville
Springfield
Gallatin
Carthage
Lebanon
Smith V.
Sparta
Livingston
Montgomery
Clarksville
Dover
Charlotte
Dresden
Troy
Paris
Camden
Huntingdon
Dyersburg
Trenton
Ripley
Brownsville
Covington
Randolph
Somerville
Bolivar
Jackson
Lexington
Centreville
Columbia
Pulaski
Lawrenceburg
Savannah
Waynesboro
Purdy
La Grange
Raleigh
Williamsport
Jacksboro
Caryville
Tazewell
Rogersville
Blountville
Taylorsville
Elizabethton
Johnson
Carter
Washington
Greene
Hawkins
Sullivan
Hancock
Claiborne
Campbell
Anderson
Knox
Blount
Sevier
Jefferson
Grainger
Union
Monroe
McMinn
Meigs
Bradley
Polk
Rhea
Roane
Morgan
Scott
Fentress
Overton
Putnam
White
Cumberland
Jackson
Macon
Sumner
Robertson
Stewart
Montgomery
Dickson
Davidson
Wilson
Smith
Trousdale
Williamson
Rutherford
Cannon
Coffee
Warren
Grundy
Sequatchie
Hamilton
Marion
Franklin
Lincoln
Bedford
Marshall
Maury
Lewis
Hickman
Perry
Benton
Humphreys
Henderson
Decatur
Madison
Haywood
Tipton
Lauderdale
Dyer
Gibson
Carroll
Obion
Weakley
Henry
Shelby
Fayette
Hardeman
McNairy
Hardin
Wayne
Lawrence
Giles
Marshall
Bledsoe
Van Buren
Whitley

is as desirable as any in the Union. The winters are by no means severe, and snow seldom falls to a greater depth than ten inches, or lies upon the ground longer than ten days.

Cities and Chief Towns.—The city of Nashville is the seat of government. The other populous towns are, Blountville, Bolivar, Columbia, Clarkesville, Franklin, Fayetteville, Gallatin, Jonesborough, Jackson, Knoxville, Marysville, Murfreesboro', Memphis, Pulaski, Paris, Rogersville, Shelbyville, Lebanon, and Winchester.

Productive Resources.—The chief products are, horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, sugar, wax, silk, wool, cotton, hemp, flax, hay, pitch, tar, tobacco, rice, wheat, rye, barley, buckwheat, oats, potatoes, and Indian corn. Of the mineral and fossil resources, iron, gold, bituminous coal, salt, marl, marble, buhr-stone, and saltpetre, are the principal. Nitrous earth is obtained from the caverns, of which there are several in the state.

Manufactures.—In 1850, there were in Tennessee 2,789 manufacturing establishments, that produced goods to the value of $500 and upward each annually. The principal manufactures are, cotton and woollen goods, leather, pottery, machinery, carriages, cordage, &c.

Railroads.—The principal roads in Tennessee now in operation are, the Charleston and Memphis, and one from the Georgia state line to Chattanooga; but there are several other roads in rapid process of construction, and still others projected.

Commerce.—Tennessee has no direct foreign commerce, but its internal and river trade is large.

Education.—There are in Tennessee two universities, and six colleges, namely: East Tennessee college, founded in 1792; Greenville and Washington colleges, in 1794; Nashville university, in 1806; Jackson college, in 1833; Cumberland university, in 1844; Franklin college, in 1845; and Union college, in 1848. There are also two theological seminaries, a law and a medical school, about 200 academies and high schools, and 1,500 common schools in the state.

Population.—In 1790, 30,791; in 1800, 105,602; in 1810, 261,727: in 1820, 422,813; in 1830, 681,904; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows:—

EASTERN TENNESSEE.		
Counties.	1850.	1840.
Anderson	69,38	5,658
Bledsoe	5,959	5,676
Blount	12,382	11,745
Bradley	12,259	7,385
Campbell	6,068	6,149
Carter	6,296	5,372
Claiborne	9,369	9,474
Cocke	8,300	6,992
Granger	12,370	10,572
Greene	17,824	16,076
Hamilton	10,075	8,175
Hancock	5,660	new co.
Hawkins	13,370	15.035
Jefferson	13,204	12,076
Johnson	3,705	2,658
Knox	18,755	15,485
Marion	6,314	6,070
Meigs	4,879	4,794
Monroe	10,874	12,056
Morgan	3,430	2,660
M'Minn	13,906	12,719
Polk	6,338	3,570
Rhea	4,415	3,985
Roane	12,185	10,948
Scott	1,905	new co.
Sevier	6,920	6,442
Sullivan	11,742	10,736
Washington	13,861	11,751
Total	260,303	224,259

MIDDLE TENNESSEE.		
Counties.	1850.	1840.
Bedford	21,512	20,546
Cannon	8,982	7,193
Coffee	8,351	8,184
Davidson	38,881	30,509
Dickson	8,404	7,074
De Kalb	8,016	5,868
Fentress	4,454	3,550
Franklin	13,768	12,033
Giles	25,949	21,494
Grundy	2,773	new co.
Hickman	9,397	8,618
Humphreys	6,422	5,195
Jackson	15,673	12,872
Lawrence	9,280	7,121
Lewis	4,438	new co.
Lincoln	23,492	21,493
Macon	6,948	new co.
Marshall	15,616	14,555
Maury	29,520	28,186
Montgomery	21,045	16,927
Overton	11,211	9,279
Robertson	16,145	13,801
Rutherford	29,122	24,282
Smith	18,412	21,179
Steward	9,719	8,587
Sumner	22,717	22,445
Van Buren	2,674	new co.
Warren	10,179	10,803
Wayne	8,170	7,705

Counties.	1850.	1840.
White	11,444	10,747
Williamson	27,201	27,006
Wilson	27,444	24,460
Total	477,359	411,710

WESTERN TENNESSEE.		
Benton	6,315	4,772
Carroll	15,967	12,362
Decatur	6,003	new co.
Dyer	6,361	4,484
Fayette	26,719	21,501
Gibson	19.548	13,689
Haywood	17,259	13,870
Henderson	13,164	11,875
Hardeman	17.456	14,563
Hardin	10,328	8,245
Henry	18,233	14,906
Lauderdale	5,169	3,435
Madison	21,470	16,530
M'Nairy	21,864	9,385
Obion	7,633	4,814
Perry	5,822	7,419
Shelby	31,157	14,721
Tipton	8,887	6,800
Weakley	14,608	9,870
Total	264,963	193,241
Total in the State	1,002,625	829,210

Number of slaves in 1790, 3 417; in 1800, 13,584; in 1810, 44,535; in 1820, 80,107; in 1830, 141,603; in 1840, 183,059; in 1850, 239,461.

GOVERNMENT.—The legislative power is vested in a general assembly, consisting of a senate of 25 members, and house of representatives, of 75 members, and the executive power in a governor (eligible six years out of eight); all chosen biennially (the odd year), the first Monday in October. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, of three judges, elected by the legislature for twelve years, and inferior courts, whose judges are elected by the legislature for eight years. Every free white citizen of the United States, of the age of 21 years, and a citizen of the county wherein he may offer his vote six months next preceding the day of election, is entitled to vote for civil officers. Ministers of the gospel are not eligible to a seat in the legislature. No person who denies the being of a God, or a future state of rewards and punishments, can hold any civil office. Lotteries are prohibited; and persons who may be concerned in duels are disqualified for holding office in the state.

HISTORY.—Tennessee was originally a part of the province of Louisiana, as settled and claimed by the French, prior to the year 1763; or a part of Carolina, as granted by Charles II., of England, to Lord Clarendon and others, in 1663. The first settlement was made by Bienville, in 1740, who built Fort Assumption, on the site where Memphis now stands. The first permanent settlements, however, were not made before 1768–'69, and these were by emigrants from North Carolina and Virginia. The country was included within the jurisdiction of North Carolina from 1729 to 1790, when it was placed under a separate territorial government, by the name of the "Territory South of the river Ohio." In 1784, North Carolina ceded this territory to the United States on condition that they should accept of it within two years from the passage of the act, retaining jurisdiction over it herself, until Congress should make provision for a territorial government. Upon this, the same year, the inhabitants resolved to organize a territorial government on their own responsibility; and accordingly a convention of deputies formed a constitution for a new state, to be denominated "Frankland," and announced to North Carolina, that they considered themselves independent of her. A portion of the people adhering to North Carolina, two conflicting legislatures, with their subordinate courts, were exercising authority in the territory. In 1789, the legislature of North Carolina authorized and instructed its members in Congress to execute deeds of conveyance for the territory of Tennessee, which they did the following year. In 1796 the inhabitants, by a convention at Nashville, formed a constitution, and Tennessee was, the same year, admitted into the Union as an independent state. The original constitution of Tennessee continued in force till 1835, when the present constitution was adopted by the people. Motto of the seal, "Agriculture," "Commerce."

GOVERNORS OF TENNESSEE.

William Blount, Governor of the Territory South of the Ohio, appointed 1790.

UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

John Sevier.....1796	Joseph M'Minn.....1815	Newton Cannon.....1835	Neil S. Brown.....1847
Archibald Roane.....1801	William Caroll.....1819	James K. Polk.....1839	William Trousdale...1849
John Sevier.....1803	Samuel Houston.....1827	James C. Jones.....1841	William B. Campbell.1851
Wilie Blount.....1809	William Caroll.....1829	Aaron V. Brown.....1845	

KENTUCKY.

Kentucky, formerly a district of Virginia, lies between 36° 30′ and 39° 10′ north latitude, and 80° 35′ and 82° west longitude from Greenwich ; and is bounded north by Ohio river, which separates it from Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio, east by Virginia, south by Tennessee, and west by Missouri. Its superficial area is 40,500 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—Kentucky lies entirely in the valley of the Ohio, and is apart of an immense inclined plain, more or less broken in its surface, descending from Cumberland mountain to the river Ohio. The Cumberland range divides this state from Virginia on the southeast. Descending from the foot of this mountain toward the northwest, to the distance of 100 miles, the country is hilly and rather mountainous. This broken section includes at least one third part of the state, and extends from Tennessee line to the river Ohio. A tract along this river, from five to twenty miles wide, is also broken and hilly, stretching through the whole length of the state. But these hills are gently rounded, and are fertile quite to their tops, having narrow valleys between them of great fertility. Along the margin of this stream there are rich alluvial bottoms, of an average width of a mile, subject to periodical inundation. Between the hilly tract on the Ohio and the mountainous country on the Virginia line and Green river there is a tract, 100 miles long and 50 miles broad, beautifully undulating, with a black and rich soil, which has been denominated the "garden of Kentucky." The whole state below the mountains rests on a bed of limestone, in general about eight feet below the surface. The rivers have worn deep channels into this calcareous bed, forming stupendous precipices, particularly on Kentucky river, where the banks in many places are 300 feet high.

Mammoth Cave.—In the southwest part of the state, between Green and

THE MAMMOTH CAVE, KENTUCKY.

KENTUCKY
Scale of miles
10 30 50 70
Columbus
Bloomfield
Covington
Cincinnati
Lawrenceburg
Newport
Alexandria
Independence
Portsmouth
Ohio Riv.
Madison
Carrollton
Wirsaw
Falmouth
Williamstown
Washington
Maysville
Clarksburg
Greenupsburg
White Riv.
Bedford
New Castle
La Grange
Owenton
Owensboro
Carlisle
Flemingsburg
Grayson
Wabash R.
Falls of the Ohio
Portland
Louisville
Shelbyville
Frankfort
Versailles
Lexington
Paris
Georgetown
Mt. Sterling
West Liberty
Louisa
Big Sandy R.
Fredonia
Benton
Evansville
Brandenburg
Salt R.
Shepherdsville
Taylorsville
Springfield
Danville
Harrodsburg
Virginia
Nicholasville
Winchester
Irvine
Prestonsburg
Pikeville
Hender son
Morganfield
Hawesv.
Hardinsburg
Elizabethtown
Bardstown
Lancaster
Proctor
Owsley
Ohio River
Green R.
Litchfield
Harrord
Hodgensv.
Lebanon
Stanford
Rockcastle
Mayfield
Madisonville
Greenville
Morgantown
Bowlingsville
Mammoth Cave
Glasgow
Columbia
Somerset
London
Jamestown
Manchester
Wmsburg
Princeton
Hopkinsville
Elkton
Russellville
Scottsv.
Tompkins
Burkesv.
Albany
Monticello
Newberry
Williamsburg
Burbourville
Mt. Vernon
Cadiz
Benton
Paducah
Smithland
Bland C.
Maysfield
Clinton
Fulton
Milst Boston
Dresden
Clarksville
Cumberland R.
Tennessee R.
Gainsboro
Clinch R.
Holston R.
Lon. West from Washington
ILLINOIS
INDIANA
OHIO
TENNESSEE
VIRGINIA
WEST VIRGINIA
CARROLL
GALLATIN
BOONE
KENTON
CAMPBELL
TRIMBLE
OWEN
GRANT
PENDLETON
BRACKEN
MASON
LEWIS
GREENUP
OLDHAM
HENRY
SHELBY
FRANKLIN
SCOTT
BOURBON
FLEMING
CARTER
JEFFERSON
BULLITT
SPENCER
ANDERSON
WOODFORD
FAYETTE
CLARK
MONTGOMERY
MORGAN
JOHNSON
LAWRENCE
MEADE
NELSON
WASHINGTON
MERCER
JESSAMINE
MADISON
ESTILL
BREATHITT
FLOYD
PIKE
HENDERSON
DAVIESS
HANCOCK
BRECKENRIDGE
HARDIN
GARRARD
BOYLE
OWSLEY
PERRY
UNION
OHIO
GRAYSON
LARUE
MARION
LINCOLN
ROCKCASTLE
CLAY
LETCHER
CRITTENDEN
HOPKINS
MUHLENBURG
BUTLER
HART
GREEN
CASEY
PULASKI
LIVINGSTON
CALDWELL
EDMONSON
MCCRACKEN
BALLARD
MARSHALL
CHRISTIAN
TODD
LOGAN
WARREN
BARREN
ADAIR
CUMBERLAND
RUSSELL
WHITLEY
HARLAN
KNOX
CALLOWAY
TRIGG
ALLEN
SIMPSON
MONROE
CLINTON
WAYNE
GRAVES
HICKMAN
FULTON

Cumberland rivers, are several wonderful caverns. The "Mammoth Cave," in Edmondson county, 130 miles from Lexington, near the road leading to Nashville, is some nine or ten miles in extent, with a great number of avenues and intricate windings. Most of these caves yield an inexhaustible supply of nitrate of lime. During the late war with Great Britain, fifty men were constantly employed in lixiviating the earth of the Mammoth Cave, to obtain the saltpetre it contained; and in about three years after the washed earth is said to have become as strongly impregnated with nitric acid as at first.

Mountains.—The Cumberland range, before referred to, forms the southeast boundary of this state.

Rivers.—The principal rivers are, the Ohio, Mississippi, Tennessee, Cumberland, Kentucky (Kutawa), Green, Licking, Salt, Rolling, and Big Sandy.

Climate.—The climate through most of this state is generally healthy. The winters are mild, and usually of only two or three months' duration. Spring and autumn are delightfully pleasant. The extremes of season, however, are widened by the peculiar features of the country. The rivers in their descent have abraded the plains, and flow in deep chasms or vales, which receive the rays of the sun in various inclinations. In these situations the summers are hot, and the winters mild.

Cities and Chief Towns.—Frankfort is the seat of government. Louisville, Lexington, and Maysville, are cities. The other populous towns are, Bardstown, Bowling-Green, Burlington, Covington, Cynthiana, Danville Elizabeth, Flemingsburg, Glasgow, Greensburg, Georgetown, Harrodsburg, Hopkinsville, Lebanon, Lancaster, Newcastle, Newport, Princeton, Paris, Richmond, Russellville, Shelbyville, Springfield, Stanford, Versailles, and Winchester.

Productive Resources.—The staple products of this state are horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, eggs, butter, cheese, wine, wax, sugar, tobacco, wool, cotton, hemp, flax, hay, lumber, wheat, barley, rye, oats, buckwheat, rice, potatoes, and Indian corn. Tobacco and hemp are the great staples of the state. Among the mineral resources are, iron, coal, salt, and lime. The salt springs are numerous, and not only supply this state, but a great part of Ohio and Tennessee, as well as other parts.

Manufactures.—About half a million of dollars is invested in cotton and woollen manufactures in Kentucky, and about $200,000 in the manufacture of iron. Other principal manufactures are, cordage, cotton-bagging, hardware, tobacco, spirits, &c. In 1850, the number of manufacturing establishments in the state, producing $500 and over each annually, was 3,471.

Railroads and Canals.—The principal railroads at present in operation in Kentucky are, the Louisville and Frankfort, 65 miles, and the Frankfort and Lexington, 29 miles. Several important railroads are projected, which, when completed, will render easily accessible all the important points in the state.

Commerce.—In common with other inland states, Kentucky has no direct foreign commerce, but ships mostly at New Orleans. The river trade of this state is considerable. About 15,000 tons of shipping is owned in the state.

Education.—There are several collegiate institutions in Kentucky; St. Joseph's, Centre, Augusta, Georgetown, and Bacon colleges; and Louisville and Transylvania universities, to both of which law and medical schools are attached. There are also, a theological institution at Covington, and the Western Military college, at Blue-Lick Springs. There are also, asylums for the blind, the deaf and dumb, and the insane. The state has a school fund of $1,400,000.

Government.—The legislative power is vested in a senate and house of representatives, which together are styled the general assembly. The senators are 38 in number, chosen by the people from single districts for four years. Representatives, 100 in number, are chosen by the people for two years. A governor and lieutenant-governor are elected by the people for a term of four

years. The governor is ineligible the succeeding term. The governor may return a bill passed by the legislature, but a majority of the members elected to each house may pass the bill afterward, and it then becomes a law, notwithstanding his objections. The general election first Monday in August biennially. The state officers are elected by the people for a term of four years. The judicial power is vested in a court of appeals, circuit, and county courts; the judges of each elected by the people. Every free white male citizen. 21 years of age or over, resident in the state two years, and in the county where he offers to vote one year, next preceding an election, may vote at such election. Elections by the people are *viva voce*.

POPULATION.—In 1790, 73,077; in 1800, 220,955; in 1810, 406,511; in 1820, 564,317; in 1830, 687,917; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows:—

COUNTIES.	1850.	1840.	COUNTIES.	1850.	1840.	COUNTIES.	1850.	1840.
Adair	9,898	8,466	Gallatin	5,137	4,003	Meade	7,393	5,780
Allen	8,742	7,329	Garrard	10,237	10,480	Mercer	14,067	18,720
Anderson	6,260	5,452	Grant	6,531	4,192	Monroe	7,756	6,526
Ballard	5,496	new co.	Graves	11,397	7,465	Montgomery	9,903	9,332
Barren	20,240	17,288	Grayson	6,837	4,461	Morgan	7,620	4,603
Bath	12,115	9,763	Green	9,060	14,212	Muhlenburg	10,809	6,964
Boone	11,185	10,034	Greenup	9,654	6,297	Nelson	14,789	13,637
Bourbon	14,466	14,478	Hancock	3,853	2,581	Nicholas	10,361	8,745
Boyle	9,116	new co.	Hardin	14,525	16,357	Ohio	9,749	6,592
Breathitt	3,785	2,195	Harlan	4,268	3,015	Oldham	7,629	7,380
Brecken	8,903	7,053	Harrison	12,964	12,472	Owen	10,444	8,232
Breckenridge	10,593	8,944	Hart	9,093	7,031	Owsley	3,774	new co.
Bullitt	6,774	6,334	Henderson	12,171	9,548	Pendleton	6,774	4,455
Butler	5,755	3,898	Henry	11,442	10,015	Perry	2,192	3,089
Caldwell	13,048	10,365	Hickman	4,791	8,968	Pike	5,365	3,567
Callaway	8,096	9,794	Hopkins	12,441	9,171	Pulaski	14,195	9,620
Campbell	13,127	5,214	Jefferson	59,831	36,346	Rockcastle	4,697	3,409
Carroll	5,526	3,966	Jessamine	10,249	9,396	Russell	5,349	4,238
Carter	6,241	2,905	Johnson	3,873	new co.	Scott	14,946	13,668
Casey	6,556	4,939	Kenton	17,038	7,816	Shelby	17,095	17,768
Christian	19,580	15,587	Knox	7,050	5,722	Simpson	7,733	6,537
Clark	12,683.	10,802	Laurel	4,145	3,079	Spencer	6,842	6,581
Clay	5,421	4,607	La Rue	5,859	new co.	Taylor	7,250	new co.
Clinton	4,889	3,863	Lawrence	6,281	4,730	Todd	12,268	9,991
Crittenden	6,351	new co.	Letcher	2,512	new co.	Trigg	10,129	7,716
Cumberland	7,005	6,090	Lewis	7,202	6,306	Trimble	5,963	4,480
Daviess	12,353	8,331	Lincoln	10,093	10,187	Union	9,012	6,673
Edmondston	4,088	2,914	Livingston	6,578	9,025	Warren	15,123	15,446
Estill	5,985	5,535	Logan	16,581	13,615	Washington	12,194	10,596
Fayette	22,735	22,194	Madison	15,727	16,355	Wayne	8,692	7,399
Fleming	13,914	13,268	Marion	11,765	11,032	Whitley	7,447	4,673
Floyd	5,714	6,302	Mason	18,344	15,719	Woodford	12,423	11,740
Franklin	12,462	9,420	Marshall	5,269	new co.			
Fulton	4,446	new co.	M'Cracken	6,067	4,745	Total	982,405	779,828

Number of slaves in 1790, 11,830; in 1800, 40,343; in 1810, 80,561; in 1820, 126,372; in 1830, 165,213; in 1840, 182,258; in 1850, 210,981.

HISTORY.—The first permanent settlement in Kentucky was made by Daniel Boone, in 1775, though the country had been visited by John Finley, and others, as early as 1769. In 1777, the legislature of Virginia made it a county, and in 1782 a supreme court was established. In about the year 1776, the region south of Kentucky river was purchased of the Cherokees, who called their domain "Transylvania" (beyond the woods). In 1786, an act was passed by Congress, erecting the district of Kentucky into a new territory; but the separation from Virginia did not take place before 1792, when it was admitted into the Union as an independent state. The first constitution was adopted in 1790, which was superseded by a new one in 1799, and that by the present one in 1850. Motto of its seal, "United we stand, divided we fall."

GOVERNORS OF KENTUCKY.

Isaac Shelby	1792	
James Garrand	1796	
Christopher Greenup	1804	
Charles Scott	1808	
Isaac Shelby	1812	
George Madison	1816	
Gabriel Slaughter, Act. Gov.	1816	
John Adair	1820	
Joseph Desha	1824	
Thomas Metcalfe	1828	
John Breathitt	1832	
Jas. T. Morehead, Lt. & Act. G.	1834	
James Clark	1836	
C. A. Wickliffe, Lt. & Act. Gov.	1839	
Robert P. Letcher	1840	
William Owsley	1844	
John J. Crittenden	1848	
John L. Helm, Act. Gov.	1851	
L. W. Powell	1851	

OHIO
Scale of Miles
10 30 50 70
LAKE ERIE
MICHIGAN
INDIANA
PENNSYLVANIA
VIRGINIA
KENTUCKY
Ohio River
Wabash R.
West Fork of White R.
East Fork
Muskingum R.
Beaver R.
Allegheny R.
Monongahela R.
Scioto R.
Hocking R.
Kanawha R.
Great Miami R.
Little Miami R.
Maumee River
Sandusky River
Cuyahoga River
Tuscarawas R.
Walhonding R.
Big Sandy R.
Ashtabula
Jefferson
Painesv.
ASHTABULA
Windsor
Warmington
Cleveland
Chardon
CUYAHOGA
GEAUGA
TRUMBULL
Warren
Elyria
Hudson
Brunswick
Medina
Akron
Cuyahoga Falls
PORTAGE
Ravenna
Canfield
MAHONING
Franklin
Clarion
Kittanning
Pittsburg
Greensburg
Wheeling
Steubenv.
Lisbon
Wellsville
Carrollton
Canton
Massillon
Fulton
COLUMBIANA
Jackson
WAYNE
STARK
Wooster
Mt Eaton
Millersburg
TUSCA
CARROL
HOLMES
New Philadelphia
Cadiz
HARRISON
St. Clairsville
Antrim
Cambridge
BELMONT
GUERNSEY
Zanesville
Barnesville
NOBLE
Woodsfield
MONROE
Mc Connells v.
MORGAN
Somerset
Lancaster
PERRY
FAIRFIELD
PICKAWAY
Circleville
FAYETTE
Logan
Athens
Marietta
Parkersburg
WASHINGTON
HOCKING
ATHENS
MEIGS
Chester
Gallipolis
Jackson
VINTON
Pikeston
Scioto
PIKE
HIGHLAND
Hillsboro
Chillicothe
ROSS
Washington
Wilmington
CLINTON
Lebanon
BUTLER
Hamilton
Cincinnati
Columbus
Madison
Vevay
BROWN
ADAMS
George town
West Union
Rome
Portsmouth
SCIOTA
LAWRENCE
Burlington
CLERMONT
Batavia
WARREN
Hopkinsv.
Lovesbury
Baintridge
CLARK
Springfield
London
Urbana
CHAMPAIGN
Troy
Greenville
Piqua
MIAMI
Twinsburg
Dayton
Eaton
PREBLE
MONTGOMERY
GREENE
Xenia
Andersontown
INDIANAPOLIS
National Road
DARKE
SHELBY
Sidney
Dansmore
LOGAN
UNION
Belfontaine
MERCER
AUGLAIZE
ALLEN
Celina
Guilford
VAN WERT
Van Wert
PAULDING
Paulding
DEFIANCE
Defiance
WILLIAMS
Bryan
FULTON
Dover
LUCAS
Toledo
Perrysburg
Lockport
South Bend
OTTAWA
Port Clinton
Lower Sandusky
SANDUSKY
Bellview
WOOD
Bowling Green
Napoleon
HENRY
Ridgeville
Ft. Wayne
Wabash
Huntington
PUTNAM
Rockport
HANCOCK
Findlay
Kalida
Franconia
Ottoville
Van Wert
Limaville
Sulphur Spr.
SENECA
Spring Valley
Tiffin
Fostoria
Norwalk
HURON
New Haven
Ashland
WYANDOT
CRAWFORD
Upper Sandusky
Bucyrus
Mansfield
DOTTE
FORD
MARION
Marion
HARDIN
Kenton
RICHLAND
Belleville
Chesterville
Mt Vernon
KNOX
Richland
DELA.
Delaware
Galena
Homer
LICKING
Newark
COLUMBUS
Lancaster
Somerset
Circleville
Logan
Athens
Marietta
Parkersburg
Chester
Gallipolis
Jackson
Pikeston
Scioto
Portsmouth
Burlington
Rome
West Union
George town
Batavia
Hillsboro
Chillicothe
Washington
Wilmington
Lebanon
Hamilton
Cincinnati
Columbus
Madison
Vevay
Dayton
Eaton
Springfield
London
Urbana
Troy
Greenville
Piqua
Twinsburg
Andersontown
INDIANAPOLIS
Celina
Kenton
Findlay
Defiance
Napoleon
Bryan
Lockport
South Bend
Ft. Wayne
Wabash
Huntington
Rockport
Van Wert
Limaville
Ottoville
Franconia
Paulding
Defiance
Bryan
Ridgeville
Napoleon
Bowling Green
Belleview
Sandusky City
Port Clinton
Lower Sandusky
Perrysburg
Toledo
Dover
Maumee River
Sandusky River
Cuyahoga River
Tuscarawas R.
Walhonding R.
Big Sandy R.
Ohio River
Wabash R.
West Fork of White R.
East Fork
Muskingum R.
Beaver R.
Allegheny R.
Monongahela R.
Scioto R.
Hocking R.
Kanawha R.
Great Miami R.
Little Miami R.
LAKE ERIE
MICHIGAN
INDIANA
PENNSYLVANIA
VIRGINIA
KENTUCKY

OHIO.

The state of Ohio is situated between 38° 34′ and 42° north latitude, and 80° 35′ and 84° 57′ west longitude from Greenwich; and is bounded north by Michigan and Lake Erie, east by Pennsylvania, southeast by Virginia, from which it is separated by Ohio river, south by Kentucky, from which it is also separated by the same river, and west by Indiana. Its superficial area is 40,000 square miles.

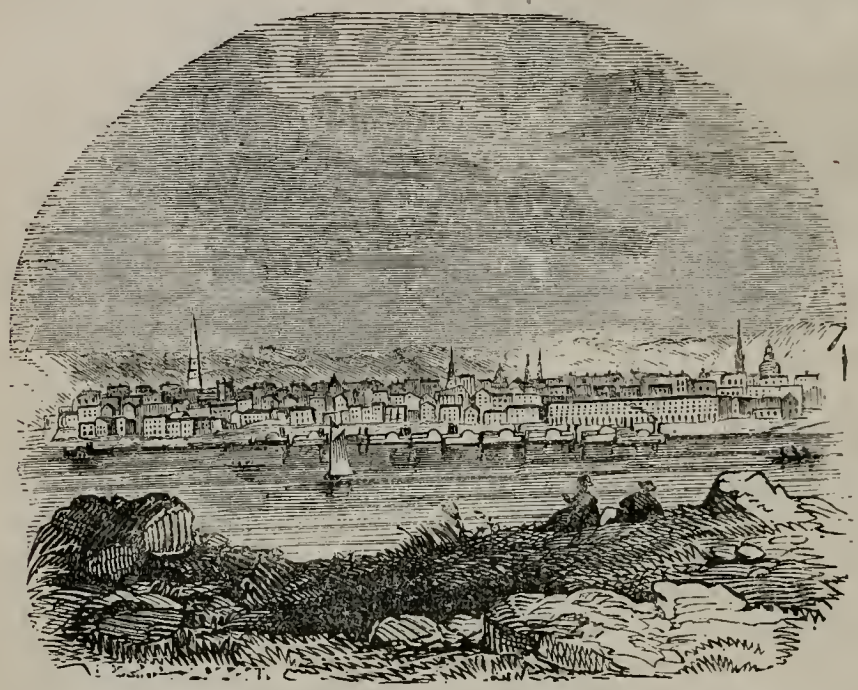
Physical Aspect.—This state presents a considerable diversity of surface, as well as of climate. A range of comparatively high land divides the waters which flow into Lake Erie from those which descend into the Ohio, forming two inclined plains of unequal areas. The northern, or Erie plain, does not exceed 25 miles in width at the northeast extremity, but expands to 80 miles in width along the east boundary of Indiana. The mean elevation of the apex of this range is estimated to be 1,000 feet above the ocean tides; so that, from its proximity to the lake, the descent of the streams, flowing in this direction, is somewhat precipitate, and all roll over direct cascades, or falls. On the other hand, the plain inclined toward the Ohio is very gradual in its descent, and falls of any kind are rarely to be found. The central portion of the state occupies an immense plâteau, or table-land, comparatively level, and in part marshy, which consists of a diversity of soil, from rich alluvion and prairie, to wild oak "barrens." Along the Ohio river, for fifty or sixty miles back, the country is hilly, and in some parts quite rugged, caused by the abrasion of the streams; but the chief part of the central table-land remains unchannelled, presenting a series of broad prairies and other plains. A similar feature is observable along the Ohio shores of Lake Erie, but the surface is less broken, and the hills are more moderate in their height.

Rivers, Lakes, and Bays.—The principal rivers of this state are, the Ohio, Muskingum, Hockhocking, Scioto, Great and Little Miami, Maumee, Sandusky, Huron, Vermilion, Black, Cuyahoga, Grand, Ashtabula, Auglaize, Tuscarawas, Walhonding, Olentangy or Whetstone, and St. Mary's. Lake Erie lies partly in Ohio, in the western part of which are Maumee and Sandusky bays; there is also a good harbor at Cleveland.*

* The enterprising and beautiful city of Cleveland, the emporium of northern Ohio, and, with Buffalo, the mart of the great lakes, is finely situated on the south shore of Lake Erie, at the mouth of Cuyahoga river. It is the seat of justice of Cuyahoga county, and is 200 miles southwest of Buffalo, 146 miles northeast of Columbus, and 359 miles from Washington. The shore of Lake Erie here is a bold bluff, about eighty feet high, upon the level top of which the largest and best part of the city is built. The streets are straight and spacious, the buildings neat and pleasant, and an open park, shaded with trees, occupies the centre. Fronting this square are, the courthouse, a church, and other prominent buildings. Hitherto the rapid growth of Cleveland has caused it to want that aspect of permanence which is the result of slower increase; but solid stores, hotels, and dwellings, are now rising in every quarter, making it as substantial as it is flourishing. Toward Cuyahoga river the ground descends steeply, affording a convenient locality for stores, warehouses, and places of business. Here the plan of the town is less regular, and not so attractive. The mouth of the river constitutes the harbor, which is deep, spacious, and accessible. Two piers of masonry project 1,200 feet into the lake, and mark an entrance. At the end of one of these piers stands a lighthouse; another occupies the brow of the hill on the lake. Vessels of the largest class enter the harbor, and proceed some distance up the river: but the Ohio and Erie canal, along the stream and through its bed, is the principal channel of inland navigation. This great canal connects Portsmouth, 307 miles distant, on the Ohio river with Cleveland, and traverses the rich interior of the state. It meets the Ohio and Pennsylvania canal at Akron, in Summit county, and thus communicates with Pittsburgh and the East. By these channels, and the facilities of intercourse with New York, Canada, and Michigan, which Lakes Erie, Ontario, and Huron afford, Cleveland maintains a commerce as varied as it is extensive. Here congregate steamboats and other vessels from every point on the vast shores of the great lakes, exchanging many foreign articles for the grain, and other agricultural products of Ohio. Here also terminate the Cleveland and Pittsburgh, and the Cincinnati, Columbus, and Cleveland railroads. The Lake-Shore railroad connects it with the Erie, at Dunkirk, the Central, at Buffalo, and the Southern Michigan, at Toledo. The manufacturing facilities of this city are not equal to its commercial advantages. The only water-power is afforded by the Cuyahoga river and the Ohio canal, which serve to keep several establishments in operation. Such articles as are necessary to supply the demand for domestic manufacture, existing in every flourishing city, are produced by the aid of steam and other mechanical powers. The population of Cleveland, in 1802, was about 200; in 1810, 547; in 1820, 606; in 1830, 1,076; in 1840, 6,071; in 1850, 17,974.

Climate.—The climate, in general, may be regarded as healthy, except in the vicinity of stagnant marshes and sluggish streams, where, in summer and autumn, intermittents usually prevail. Spring and autumn are pleasant; but the winters, though comparatively mild, are subject to great fluctuations of temperature, varying from temperate to 16° Fahrenheit below zero.

Cities and Chief Towns.—The city of Columbus is the seat of government. Cincinnati,* Cleveland, Chillicothe, and Dayton, are cities. The other



VIEW OF CINCINNATI, OHIO.

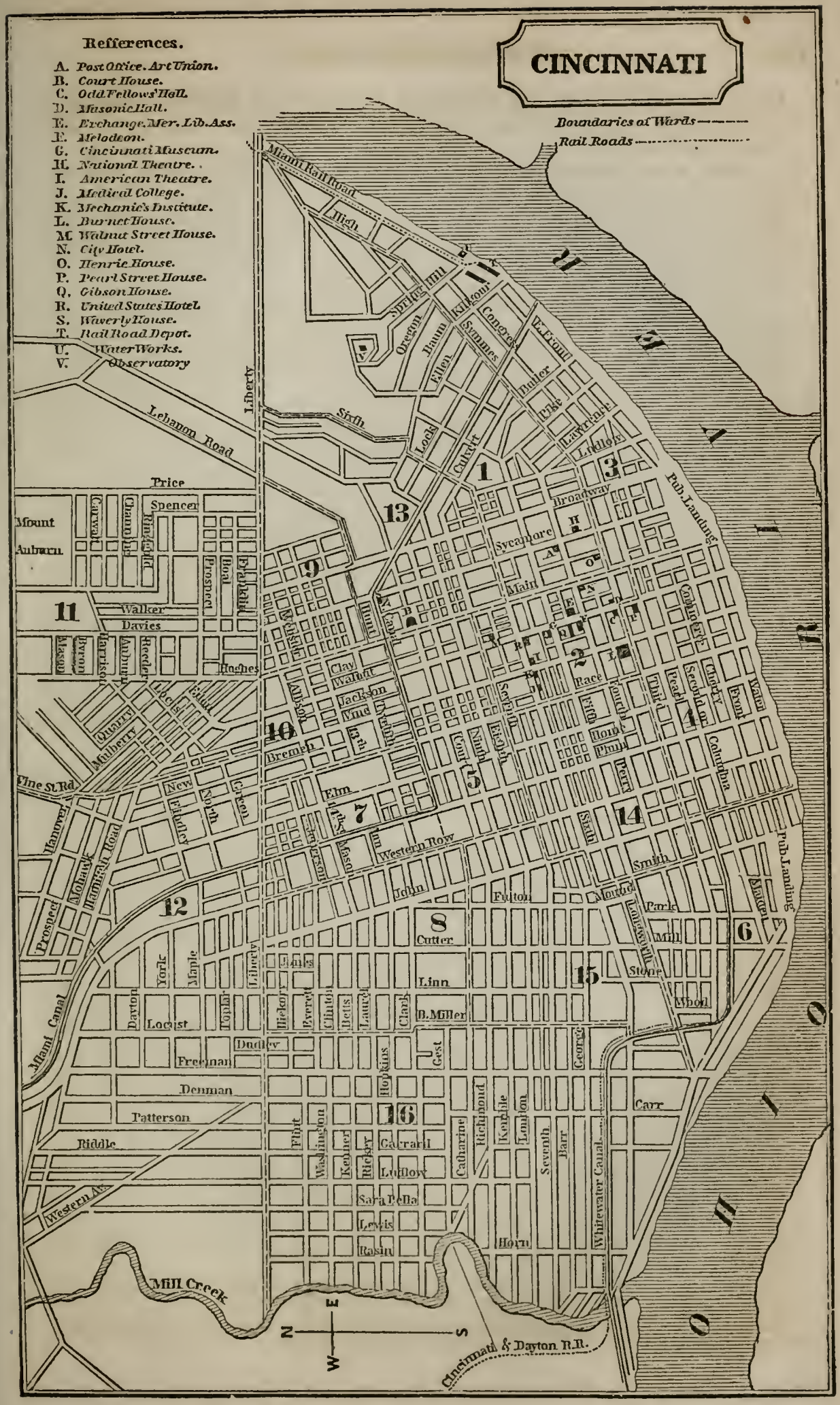
populous towns are, Athens, Batavia, Bellefontaine, Bucyrus, Burlington, Carrolton, Coshocton, Chardon, Cambridge, Cadiz, Chester, Circleville, Canton, Delaware, Elyria, Eaton, Greenville, Gallipolis, Hamilton, Huron, Hillsborough, Hardin, Jefferson, Lancaster, Lebanon, Lower Sandusky, Millersburg, Mount Vernon, Marion, Medina, Mansfield, Marietta, M'Connellsville, Norwalk, New Lisbon, Newark, New Philadelphia, Portsmouth, Perrysburg, Painesville,

* Cincinnati, the "Queen City of the West," in population, commerce, and general enterprise, is situated on the north bank of Ohio river, 494 miles from its entrance into the Mississippi, 1,447 miles from New Orleans, and 492 miles from Washington. It occupies two terraces, or even surfaces, the higher rising by a regular grade about sixty feet above the lower. Great uniformity characterizes the streets, and the city is more splendid than it appears from the water. The surrounding country is a pleasant, fertile valley, bounded by undulating slopes and hills, which command delightful views of the city, the river, and its banks. Near Cincinnati are several thriving villages and towns, which are connected with it in prosperity and interests. Like most rapidly increasing American cities, Cincinnati exhibits great diversity in the appearance of its buildings. Some are of wood and cheap material; others are solid, durable, and splendid. Extensive warehouses, stores and dwellings adorn the compact central portions; toward the outskirts the buildings are more scattered, and less comely. The public buildings are numerous, and generally elegant, consisting of between forty and fifty churches; market-houses; a courthouse, 120 feet high to the top of the dome; several banks, asylums, and hospitals; large and splendid hotels, public schools, libraries, the observatory, scientific and literary institutions. Cincinnati, St. Xavier, Woodward colleges, and some seminaries, are located in the city, and exhibit the high regard for education which is cherished in the West.

The manufactories of Cincinnati include a great variety of articles of necessity, comfort, and luxury. Nature has supplied no remarkable water privileges; yet enterprise has constructed extensive appliances for the prosecution of manufactures. Several canals, approaching the city from different points, by means of locks and dams, perform the functions of rivers in respect to industry and trade. Cincinnati is the market and emporium of a wide extent of country, exchanging its manufactures for vast numbers of hogs, and other agricultural products. This extensive trade is facilitated by the numerous natural and artificial channels of communication from various points. From its position on the Ohio, it commands the commerce of its valley, with that of the Mississippi, while Licking river enters the Ohio opposite the city, after meandering 230 miles in Kentucky. Whitewater and Miami rivers, with their navigation improved by extensive canals, largely contribute to the trade and prosperity of the place.

The water-works of Cincinnati consists of a steam-engine and reservoirs on the Ohio, which contain 1,600,000 gallons. From Cleveland and Sandusky City, sixty miles apart, on Lake Erie, two lines of railroad traverse the state, meet at Xenia, and terminate at Cincinnati.

The population of Cincinnati in 1800 was 750; in 1810, 2,540; in 1820, 9,644; in 1830, 24,831; in 1840, 46,338; in 1850, 116,108.


CINCINNATI
References.
A. Post Office. Art Union.
B. Court House.
C. Odd Fellows' Hall.
D. Masonic Hall.
E. Exchange. Mer. Lib. Ass.
F. Melodeon.
G. Cincinnati Museum.
H. National Theatre.
I. American Theatre.
J. Medical College.
K. Mechanic's Institute.
L. Burnet House.
M. Walnut Street House.
N. City Hotel.
O. Henrie House.
P. Pearl Street House.
Q. Gibson House.
R. United States Hotel.
S. Waverly House.
T. Rail Road Depot.
U. Water Works.
V. Observatory
Boundaries of Wards
Rail Roads
Miami Rail Road
Mount Auburn
Lebanon Road
Price
Liberty
Sixth
Locust
Culvert
Lawrence
Ludlow
Broadway
Pub. Landing
Sycamore
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Jackson
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Race
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Western Row
Smith
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Mill Creek
Whitewater Canal
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Ravenna, Sandusky City, St. Clairsville, Springfield, Steubenville, Somerset, Toledo, Tiffin, Troy, Urbana, Wilmington, Washington, Warren, Wooster, Xenia, and Zanesville.

Productive Resources.—The chief products are, horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, eggs, butter, cheese, beef, pork, wax, silk, wool, wine, sugar, hops, tobacco, madder, hay, flax, hemp, lumber, pot and pearl ashes, wheat, rye, barley, oats, buckwheat, potatoes, and Indian corn. Of the mineral resources, coal, iron, and salt, are the principal, the latter of which is extensively manufactured from salt creeks and springs.

Manufactures.—The manufactures of Ohio are already of considerable importance, and are rapidly increasing, in both variety and extent. The abundance of water-power, and the cheapness of coal, will make this section of the Ohio valley the seat of vast manufacturing industry. The more important articles of manufacture are, machinery, cotton, woollen, flour, and mixed goods, leather, paper, ironware, agricultural and mechanical implements, cabinetware, hats, steamboats, &c. The number of manufacturing establishments in the state in 1850, producing each $500 worth or more annually, was 10,550.

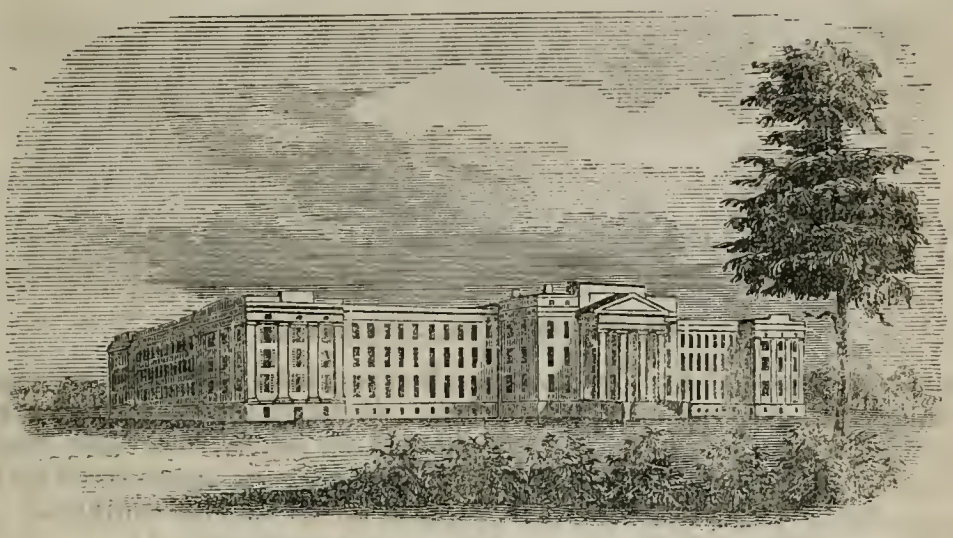
Railroads and Canals.—Ohio has an extensive system of railroads and canals, communicating with every important point. There are about 2,000 miles already in operation, or in rapid process of construction. The principal of them are, the Cleveland, Columbus, and Cincinnati, 255 miles; the Cincinnati and Sandusky, 218 miles; Cleveland and Pittsburgh, 100 miles; the Ohio and Pennsylvania, running through the centre of the state, and connecting the Indiana with the Pennsylvania roads; and the Lake-Shore road, uniting Illinois and Michigan with New York and the eastern states. The most important of the canals in the state is the Ohio canal, 309 miles long, connecting the waters of Lake Erie at Cleveland with those of the Ohio river at Portsmouth. The aggregate length of the canals is about 850 miles. The tolls collected are about $800,000 annually.

Commerce.—With the exception of the trade with Canada, the direct foreign commerce of Ohio is trifling, the exports and imports of 1850 amounting to only $800,000. But the coasting and river trade is immense. Amount of shipping enrolled in the state about 65,000 tons.

Population.—In 1790, about 3,000; in 1800, 45,365; in 1810, 230,760; in 1820, 581,434; in 1830, 937,903; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows:—

Counties.	1850.	1840.
Adams	18,883	13,183
Allen	12,109	9,079
Ashland	23,792	new co.
Ashtabula	28,766	23,724
Athens	18,215	19,109
Auglaize	11,338	new co.
Belmont	34,600	30,901
Brown	27,332	22,715
Butler	30,789	28,173
Carroll	17,685	18,018
Champaign	19,762	16,721
Clark	22,178	16,882
Clermont	30,455	23,106
Clinton	18,838	15,719
Columbiana	83,621	40,378
Coshocton	25,674	21,590
Crawford	18,177	13,152
Cuyahoga	48,099	26,506
Darke	20,274	13,282
Defiance	6,966	new co.
Delaware	21,817	22,060
Erie	18,568	12,599
Fairfield	30,264	31,924
Fayette	12,726	10,984
Franklin	42,910	25,949
Fulton	7,781	new co.
Gallia	17,063	13,444
Geauga	17,827	16,297
Greene	21,946	17,528
Guernsey	30,438	27,748
Hamilton	156,843	80,145
Hancock	16,751	9,986
Hardin	8,251	4,598
Harrison	20,157	20,099
Henry	3,435	2,503
Highland	25,781	22,269
Hocking	14,119	9,741
Holmes	20,452	18,088
Huron	26,203	23,933
Jackson	12,721	9,744
Jefferson	29,132	25,030
Knox	28,873	29,579
Lake	14,654	9,738
Lawrence	15,246	13,719
Licking	38,846	35,096
Logan	19,162	14,015
Lorain	26,086	18,467
Lucas	12,363	9,382
Madison	10,015	9,025
Mahoning	23,735	new co.
Marion	12,618	14,765
Medina	24,441	18,352
Melgs	17,971	11,452
Mercer	7,712	8,277
Miami	24,996	19,688
Monroe	28,351	18,521
Montgomery	38,219	31,938
Morgan	28,585	20,852
Morrow	20,280	new co.
Muskingum	45,049	38,749
Ottowa	3,308	2,248
Paulding	1,766	1,034
Perry	20,775	19,344
Pickaway	21,008	19,725
Pike	10,953	7,626
Portage	24,419	22,965
Preble	21,736	19,482
Putnam	7,221	5,189
Richland	30,879	44,532
Ross	32,074	27,460
Sandusky	14,305	10,182
Scioto	18,428	11,192
Seneca	27,105	18,128
Shelby	13,958	12,154
Stark	39,878	34,603
Summit	27,485	22,560
Trumbull	30,490	38,107
Tuscarawas	31,761	25,631
Union	12,204	8,422
Van Wert	4,813	1,577
Vinton	9,353	new co.
Warren	25,561	23,141
Washington	29,510	20,823
Wayne	32,981	35,808
Williams	8,018	4,465
Wood	9,157	5,357
Wyandott	11,292	new co.
Total	1,980 408	1,519,467

Education.—The facilities of education in Ohio are ample. The permanent school fund amounts to rising $600,000. The principal literary institutions are, the University of Ohio, at Athens, founded in 1804; the Miami university, in 1809; Cincinnati college, in 1819; Franklin college, at New Athens, in 1825; Western Reserve college, at Hudson, in 1826; the Kenyon college, at Gambia, in 1827; the Granville college, at Granville, and Woodward college, at Cincinnati, in 1831; the Oberlin college, in 1834; the Marietta college, in 1835; the St. Xavier college, at Cincinnati, in 1840; the Ohio Wesleyan university, at Delaware, in 1842; and the Wittenberg college, at Springfield, in 1845. Law, medical, and theological schools are attached to many of the above. There are near 200 academies, and over 13,000 free common schools established throughout the state. The state has also provided liberally for the education and support of the deaf and dumb, blind, and lunatic. The buildings, with spacious grounds, for each class, are situated at Columbus.



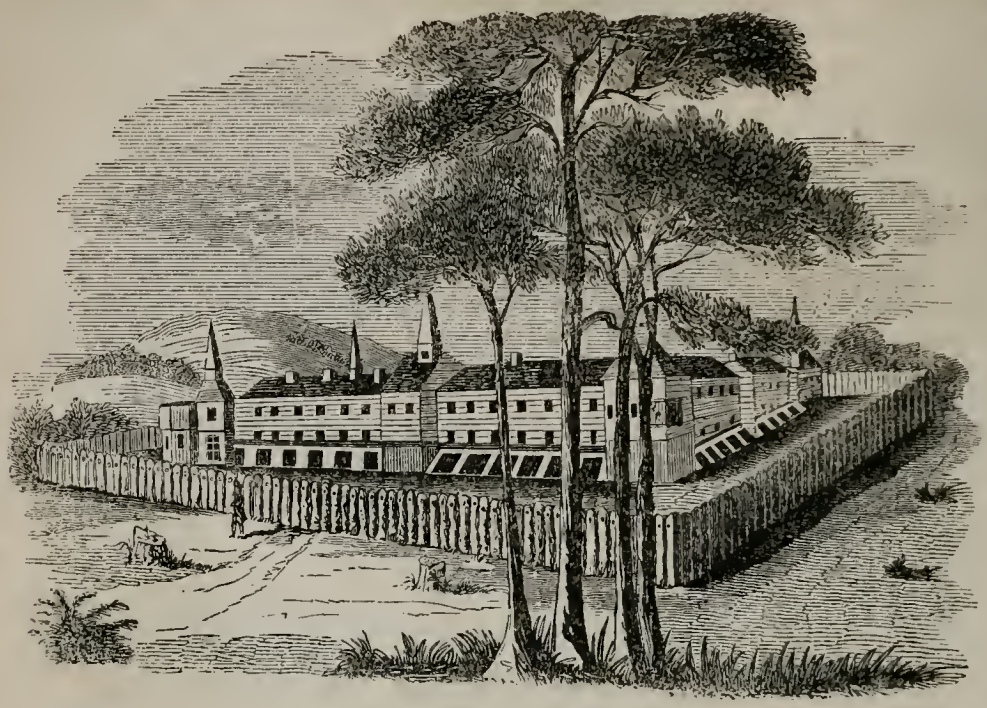
LUNATIC ASYLUM, COLUMBUS.*

Government.—The legislative power is vested in a general assembly, consisting of a senate and house of representatives, elected biennially, on the second Tuesday in October. The senate consists of 35 members, and the house of representatives of 100 members. The legislature meets biennially at Columbus the first Monday in January. The executive department consists of a governor, lieutenant-governor (who is president of the senate), secretary of state, auditor, treasurer, and an attorney-general, who are chosen by the people at the biennial election. They hold their offices for two years, except the auditor, whose term is four years. The board of public works, consisting of three members, is elected by the people, one annually for the term of three years. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, in district courts, courts of common pleas, courts of probate, justices of the peace, and in such other courts, inferior to the supreme court, as the general assembly may establish; the five supreme court judges hold their office five years, the term of one of the judges expiring annually. There are nine judges of the common pleas, elected by district for five years. All judges are elected by the people. The elective franchise is enjoyed by every white male citizen of the United States, of the age of 21 years, a resident of the state one year next preceding the election.

History.—The French explored the region, and erected forts along the banks of the Ohio river, as far up as Pittsburgh, Penn., as early as 1754. In 1786, what now constitutes the state of Ohio was erected, by act of Congress,

* The edifice of this institution stands upon an open space of ground, about one mile east of the statehouse. It has thirty acres of land attached to it. The range presents a continuous front of 376 feet. The buildings cover an acre of ground, and contain 460 rooms. It was erected for $150,000, including the labor of convicts.

into the "Western Territory," the name of which was afterward changed to the "Territory Northwest of the River Ohio." The first permanent settlement



CAMPUS MARTIUS, MARIETTA.

was made at Marietta,* in 1788, by a small colony from Massachusetts, and the year following a settlement was made near Cincinnati; this was followed by another at Cleveland, in 1796, the emigrants being mostly from New England. Soon after the treaty of Greenville, in 1795, Michigan was surrendered by Great Britain to the United States, and was annexed to the territory northwest of the river Ohio in 1800. The same year Connecticut relinquished her jurisdiction over the "Western Reserve."† In 1799, the first territorial legislature met at Cincinnati, and organized the government. In 1802, Ohio was detached from Michigan, and admitted into the Union as an independent state. Her constitution was framed the same year, at Chillicothe (the capital of the state until it was removed to Columbus in 1812), and continued in operation till 1851, when a new constitution was framed at Columbus, by a convention of delegates, and adopted by the people.

GOVERNORS OF OHIO.

Arthur St. Clair, Governor of the Northwest Territory from 1789 to 1803.

Under the Constitution.

Edward Tiffin.....1803
Thomas Kirker, Acting Gov...1807
Samuel Hunting.....1808
Return J. Meigs.....1810
Othniel Looker, Acting Gov...1814
Thomas Worthington.....1814
Ethan Allen Brown.....1818
Allen Trimble, Acting Gov.....1822
Jeremiah Morrow.....1822
Allen Trimble.....1826
Duncan M'Arthur.....1830
Robert Lucas.....1832
Joseph Vance.....1836
Wilson Shannon.....1838
Thomas Corwin.....1840
Wilson Shannon.....1842
Thos. W. Bartley, Act. Gov...1843
Mordecai Bartley.....1844
William Bebb.....1846
Seabury Ford.....1848
Reuben Wood.....1850

*Soon after the settlement of Marietta (so called in honor of Maria Antoinette, the queen of France), commenced, the people began to build a stockade fort, and named it Campus Martius. It was completed in the winter of 1791. The wall formed a parallelogram, the sides of which were 180 feet. At each corner was a strong blockhouse, 20 feet square. Within were a number of dwelling-houses, which, with the fort, were constructed of wood, whipsawed into timber, four inches thick, and laid up as log-houses are. In the west and south fronts were strong gateways. Port-holes for musketry and artillery were made, and in the block-houses, sentries were posted every night. A row of palisades, sloping outward, extended from corner to corner of the block-houses. The dwellings contained nearly 300 persons. Outside of the whole was a row of strong palisades, about ten feet in height.

†That part of Ohio called "New Connecticut," or "Connecticut Western Reserve," is situated in the north-eastern part of the state, and embraces 3,300,000 acres, which was held by Connecticut, in consideration of its original charter, and by way of compromise was ceded to the United States in 1796, when it was sold to the "Connecticut Land Company" for $1,200,000. It forms the chief basis of the present school fund of Connecticut. A valuable tract of 4,204,800 acres, lying between Little Miami and Scioto rivers, belongs to the state of Virginia, called the "Military Lands."

MICHIGAN.

The state of Michigan consists of two distinct peninsulas, and is situated between 41° 48′ and 47° 30′ north latitude, and 82° 20′ and 90° 10′ longitude west from Greenwich. Michigan proper, or the lower peninsula, is bounded north by the straits of Mackinaw, which separate it from the upper peninsula, northeast by Lake Huron, which separates it from Canada West, east by Lake Huron, the river St. Clair, Lake St. Clair, the river Detroit and Lake Erie, which separate it from Canada West, south by Ohio and Indiana, and west by Lake Michigan, and contains 39,856 square miles. The upper peninsula, which is annexed to Michigan proper, merely for the temporary purposes of civil government, is bounded north by Lake Superior, easterly by St. Mary's river, which separates it from Canada West, southerly by Wisconsin, Lakes Michigan and Huron, and Mackinaw straits, and contains 20,664 square miles; making the total superficial area 60,520 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The surface of Michigan proper is less varied than any other section of equal extent in the United States. The dividing ridge, or table land, which separates the sources of the Great Miami and Maumee from those of the Wabash, is continued in a northerly direction across the lower peninsula, dividing it into two inclined plains, more or less rolling, one sloping toward Lake Michigan on the west, and the other toward Lakes Huron, St. Clair, and Erie, on the east. This table-land is interspersed with marshes and small lakes, from which issue the head branches of the principal streams. Small prairies occur from the banks of the St. Joseph's to Lake St. Clair, the soil of some of which is excellent, while that of others is sandy, sterile, or wet; but a greater portion of the country is covered with dense forests, the soil of which is well adapted to the production of most kinds of northern farm crops. The trans-peninsula, or northern division, is diversified by mountains, hills, valleys, and plains. A range of high lands run nearly throughout the length of the peninsula, rising gradually from the shores of Lakes Michigan and Superior toward its summit. The surface in the region of Keweenaw point is broken and rolling, and some of the hills are elevated nearly 900 feet above the level of the lake. From its high latitude and sterile character, this division of the state does not promise much to agriculture; though there are many fertile tracts, particularly in the prairies on the eastern part of this peninsula, as well as in the valleys, which are highly productive, when cultivated with appropriate crops. Isle Royale presents a broken and rugged outline on its coast, and is deeply indented by long and narrow inlets and bays. About one fourth of this island is sandstone and conglomerate rock. The remainder consists of trap-rock, which lies in ridges from 300 to 500 feet in height above the lake, and extending in a broken line throughout the isle.

Mountains.—Porcupine mountains, which form the dividing ridge between Lakes Superior and Michigan, toward the western boundary of the state, are represented to be elevated from 1,800 to 2,000 feet above the lake.

Rivers, Lakes, and Bays.—The principal rivers of the lower peninsula are, the Raisin, Rouge, Detroit, Clinton, Black, or Delude, St. Clair, Saginaw, Thunder Bay, Cheboygan, St. Joseph's, Kalamazoo, Grand, Marame, Barbice, White, Rocky, Beauvais, St. Nicholas, Marguerite, Manistee, Au Sable, or Sandy, Aux Betises, Belle, Tittibawasse, Grand Traverse, Aux Carpe, Maskegon, Flint, and the Pentwater. The chief rivers of the upper

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Kewenaw R.
Huron
St. Johns R.
Dead R.
Montreal R.
ONTONAGON
MARQUETTE
SCHOOLCRAFT
LAKE SUPERIOR
WISCONSIN
Menomonee R.
DELTA
CANADA
Falls of St. Marys
White Fish Pt.
Sault St. Marys
CHIPPEWA
SCHOOLCRAFT
MICHILIMACKINAC
St. Josephs I.
Drummonds I.
Manistee R.
DELTA
Mackinaw
Great Manitoulin I.
Str. of Mackinaw
Bois Blanc I.
Beaver Is.
EMMET
CHEBOYGAN
CHARLEVOIX
WYANDOT
PRESQUE ISLE
Presque Isle
Fox Is.
Manitou Is.
Grand Traverse
ANTIM
OTSEGO
MONTMORENCY
Thunder Bay R.
ALPENA
Thunder R.
LEELANAU
KALCASCA
CRAWFORD
OSCODA
Au Sable R.
ALCONA
OMEENA
MANISTEE
Manistee R.
WEXFORD
MISSAUKEE
ROSCOMMON
OGEEMAW
IOSCO
MASON
OSCEOLA
Maskegon R.
GLADWIN
ARENAC
LAKE
CLARE
Notipekago R.
SAGINAW BAY
Saginaw R.
HURON
OCEANA
NEWAYGO
MECOSTA
SABELLA
MIDLAND
Chippewa R.
Tittibawassee R.
Zilwakee
TUSCOIA
Saginaw
SANILAC
MONTCALM
Pine R.
GRATIOT
SAGINAW
Cass R.
Flint R.
ST. CLAIR
OTTAWA
KENT
Maple R.
GENESEE
Lapeer
LAPEER
Grand Haven
Grand R.
Kent
Ionia
CLINTON
SHIAWASSEE
Corunna
Flint
Port Huron
Grandville
IONIA
DeWitt
Shiawassee R.
Groveland
Shelby
St. Clair
Mt. Clemens
Hastings
LANSING
EATON
Mason
LIVINGSTON
Pontiac
Howell
MACOMB
ALLEGAN
Allegan
BARRY
Charlotte
INGHAM
OAKLAND
L. St. Clair
VAN BUREN
Kalamazoo
Jackson
Ann Arbor
Dexter
DETROIT
Sandwich
Pawpaw
LAMAZOO
Marshall
CALHOUN
JACKSON
WASHTENAW
WAYNE
Ypsilanti
Amherstburg
St. Joseph
Manchester
Jonasville
Tecumseh
Berrien
CASS
Centre V.
BRANCH
Adrian
New Buffalo
Cassopolis
Niles
ST. JOSEPH
Cold Water
HILLSDALE
Hillsdale
LENAWEE
MONROE
Monroe
Detroit R.
L. ERIE
INDIANA
OHIO
Toledo
Lon. West from Washington

peninsula are, the Ontonagon, Huron, Menomonee, Dead, Montreal, St. Mary's, Eagle, Cedar, White Fish, Black, Sturgeon, Rapid, and the Manistic. The principal lakes are, Superior, Michigan, Erie, Huron, St. Clair, Long, Houghton, and Michigamme. The chief bays are, Green, Saginaw, Thunder, Great and Little Traverse, Tah-qua-me-naw, and Keewaiwona.

Islands.—Grand, Isle Royale, Sugar, Drummond's, Cockburn, Mackinaw, Boisblanc, Great and Little Beaver, Garden, and Hog.

Climate.—The climate of Michigan is generally regarded as healthy, though near the lakes, swamps, and turbid streams, intermittents prevail to some extent in summer and fall. The seasons of the lower peninsula somewhat resembles those of western Pennsylvania, Wisconsin, and Canada West. In the northern peninsula the climate is colder and more severe. Lake St. Clair is usually frozen from December till March.

Cities and Chief Towns.—Lansing is the seat of government. Detroit* is

CITY OF DETROIT, MICHIGAN.

a city. The other populous towns are, Adrian, Ann Arbor, Bellevue, Branch, Centreville, Cassopolis, Flint, Grand Rapids, Howell, Jackson, Kalamazoo, Lapier, Marshall, Mackinac, Monroe, Palmer, Pontiac, Saginaw, and Ypsilanti.

Productive Resources.—The chief productions are horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, eggs, butter, cheese, fish, sugar, wax, hops, hay, tobacco, wool, hemp, wheat, rye, barley, oats, buckwheat, potatoes, Indian corn, and lumber. Among the mineral resources are rich veins of iron ore, in inexhaustible quantities, in the district of country extending from Dead river to

* The commercial and rapidly increasing city of Detroit occupies a pleasant and commanding situation on Detroit river, eighteen miles from Lake Erie, and seven miles from Lake St. Clair. Between the two great lakes, Huron and Erie, upon both of which its vessels carry on an extensive trade; through Lakes Superior and Michigan, and with Canada, Pennsylvania, and New York, it is an important metropolis of the western states, and is destined to a still higher rank than it now holds. The city is agreeably laid out with broad streets, some of which converge at the "Circus," a spacious public ground. Among the other parks is the "Campus Martius," near the centre of the city. Parallel with the river, at the foot of the eminence upon which the town is built, is a street lined with warehouses and stores. Above this, another street runs in the same direction, and still further to the west is the principal business street, which is closely built with stores, dwellings, and public buildings. Here, until 1847, when the seat of government was removed to Lansing, stood the statehouse, from the high dome of which appears an enchanting prospect of the river, Lake St. Clair, and their picturesque and romantic shores. Other buildings are, the city-hall, Bank of Michigan, churches, markets, schools, and various scientific and literary institutions. Several hundred steamboats and other vessels, from various places on the lakes, visit Detroit during the season of navigation, which lasts about two thirds of the year. The Michigan Central railroad extends 281 miles, to Chicago, on Lake Michigan; and the Detroit and Pontiac railroad is 25 miles long.

The population of Detroit, in 1810, was 770; in 1820, 1,422; in 1830, 2,222; in 1840, 9,102; in 1850, 21,019.

the Menomonee. But what in more valuable, and of great importance to this country, are the rich veins of copper, blended more or less with silver, which occur at Keweenaw Point, Eagle river, Isle Royale, and other parts of the upper peninsula. Many of these mines have been opened to a considerable extent, and have been sufficiently proved to show that they may be advantageously wrought for centuries to come. From one of the veins of the Copper Falls mines a single mass of native copper has been taken, which weighed 30 tons. It was perfectly pure, and as dense as the best hammered copper of commerce, showing its perfect fineness. These ores frequently contain a sufficient quantity of silver to be of commercial value. To show the extent to which these veins are susceptible of being wrought, it may be stated that a single mine annually sends to market nearly 1,000 tons of ore, that will contain 60 per cent. of pure copper. In another instance masses of pure copper, of large size, weighing some thousands of pounds, have been obtained from an ancient ravine, that had been gullied out by the floods. In the same ravine large pieces of silver also were found.

Manufactures.—The manufactures of Michigan are confined mostly to supplying the immediate wants of the people. Saw, planing, and flour mills are numerous, as also tanneries, &c. The number of manufacturing establishments in the state, in 1850, whose annual product amounted in value to $500 and upward, was 1,979.

Railroads.—Michigan has several important railroads, which traverse the state. Among them are, the Central railroad, from Detroit to Chicago, 281 miles long, and the Southern, from Monroe to Chicago, 247 miles. The aggregate length of railroads in operation in the state is about 500 miles.

Commerce.—Situated as Michigan is, on the four great lakes of Huron, Superior, Michigan, and Erie (furnishing a continuous water communication of nearly 1,000 miles navigable for vessels, and the opening of a canal around the falls of Ste. Marie, will add about 400 miles to this, through Lake Superior), it possesses superior advantages for an extensive commerce. Its foreign trade is confined to the British provinces. But its coasting-trade is large—its exports, from the single port of Detroit, amounting to over $4,000,000 in value annually. An immense traffic is carried on in lumber, consisting of pine, walnut, maple, and white-wood, with the eastern and southern states.

Education.—The University of Michigan, at Ann Arbor, founded in 1837, and the St. Philip's college, near Detroit, founded in 1839, are the principal collegiate institutions in Michigan. There are about 3,000 common schools throughout the state.

Population.—In 1810, within the four districts of Detroit, Erie, Huron, and Mackinaw, was 4,762; in 1820, 8,896. In 1830, the whole population of the territory was 31,639; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows:—

Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.
Allegan	5,125	1,783	Jackson	19,431	13,130	Oceana	300	208
Barry	5,072	1,078	Kalamazoo	13,179	7,380	Ontonagon	389	new co.
Berrien	11,417	5,011	Kent	12,016	2,587	Ottowa	5,587	496
Branch	12,472	5,715	Lapeer	7,029	4,265	Saginaw	2,609	2,103
Calhoun	19,162	10,599	Lenawee	26,372	17,889	Sanilac	2,112	new co.
Cass	10,907	5,710	Livingston	13,485	7,430	St. Clair	10,420	4,606
Chippewa	898	534	Macomb	15,530	923	St. Joseph	12,725	7,068
Clinton	5,102	1,614	Marquette	136	new co.	Schoolcraft	16	new co.
Eaton	7,058	2,379	Michilimackinac	3,598	9,716	Shiawasse	5,230	2,103
Genesee	12,031	4,268	Mason	93	new co.	Tuscola	291	new co.
Hillsdale	16,159	7,240	Midland	65	new co.	Van Buren	5,800	1,910
Houghton	708	new co.	Montcalm	891	new co.	Washtenaw	28,567	23,571
Huron	210	new co.	Monroe	14,698	9,922	Wayne	42,756	24,173
Ingham	8,631	2,498	Newaygo	510	new co.			
Ionia	7,597	1,923	Oakland	31,270	23,646	Total	397,654	212,276

Government.—The legislative power is vested in a senate, of 32 members, and a house of representatives, of not less than 64, nor more than 100 members, elected by the people, for two years, by single districts The executive power

is vested in a governor, and lieutenant-governor, elected by the people for a term of two years. The general election is held on the Tuesday succeeding the first Monday in November, biennially. At each general election a secretary of state, superintendent of public instruction, treasurer, commissioner of the land-office, an auditor-general, and an attorney-general, are chosen by the people at large, for the term of two years. County officers are also chosen every two years. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, circuit courts, probate courts, and in justices of the peace. The judges of the several circuit courts are to be judges of the supreme court for the term of six years, and thereafter, until the legislature otherwise provide. The right of suffrage is held by every white male citizen above the age of 21 years, every white male inhabitant residing in the state on the first of January, 1850, who has declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States six months preceding an election, or who has resided in the state two years and six months, and declared his intention as aforesaid, who has resided in the state three months, and in the township or ward in which he offers to vote ten days next preceding such election. Slavery and imprisonment for debt are prohibited. The personal property of debtors, under $500, and every homestead not exceeding forty acres of land, and occupied dwelling, not exceeding $1,500, are exempt from sale on execution, or any other final process from a court, for any debt contracted after the adoption of this constitution.

History.—Among the earlier settlements of this state were Fort Ponchartrain, at Detroit, in about the year 1660; the Jesuit mission on the island of Mackinaw, by Marquette, in 1665; and Fort Miami, at the mouth of St. Joseph's river, by La Salle, in 1678. Michigan remained as a portion of the British possessions in North America until the treaty of Grenville, in 1795. The year following it was ceded to the United States; and in 1800 it was annexed to the "Territory Northwest of the River Ohio." In 1802, Ohio was detached and formed into an independent state; but a territorial government was not established in Michigan before the year 1805. In 1812 it was invaded by the British, but was retaken by the Americans the next year.* In 1835 a constitution was formed, and in 1837 it was admitted into the Union as an independent state. The present constitution of the state was adopted by a convention, at Lansing, August 15, 1850, and ratified by the people in November of that year. Motto of the seal, *E pluribus unum:* "Many in one." *Tuebor:* "I will defend." *Si quæris peninsulam amœnam circumspice:* "If thou seekest a beautiful peninsula, behold it here."

GOVERNORS OF THE TERRITORY OF MICHIGAN.

William Hull.....1805	George B. Porter.....1829	John S. Horner, Acting Gov...1835
Lewis Cass.....1814	S. T. Mason, Acting Gov.....1834	

UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

Stevens T. Mason.....1836	John S. Barry.....1842	E. Ransom.....1848
William Woodbridge.....1840	Alpheus Felch.....1846	John S. Barry.....1850
J. W. Gordon.....1841	Wm. L. Greenley, Act. Gov...1847	Robert M'Clelland.....1852

* On the 16th of August, 1812, General Brock, the British commander, crossed the river a few miles above Detroit, without opposition, and, with a force of about 700 British troops and 600 Indians, marched against the American works. While the American troops, under General Hull, advantageously posted, and numbering more than the combined forces of the British, were anxiously awaiting the orders to fire, great were their mortification and rage, when all were suddenly ordered within the fort, and a white flag, in token of submission, was suspended from the walls. Not only the army at Detroit, but the whole territory, with all its forts and garrisons, was thus basely surrendered to the British. Perry's victory on Lake Erie, Sept. 10, 1813, opened a passage to this territory, and General Harrison immediately made preparations for retaking it. He entered Detroit on the 29th of September, which had been evacuated by the English, met them at the Thames, the 5th of October, completely routed them, and thus more than regained the territory which had been surrendered by Hull.

INDIANA.

The state of Indiana is situated between 37° 45′ and 41° 52′ north latitude, and 84° 42′ and 88° 12′ longitude west from Greenwich; and is bounded north by Michigan lake and state, east by a small portion of Michigan, Ohio, and a small part of Kentucky, southeast by Ohio river, which separates it from Kentucky, and west by Illinois, from which it is separated in part by Wabash river. Its superficial area is 34,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—In features, soil, and climate, Indiana forms a connecting link between Ohio and Illinois. It is more hilly than the latter, but contains no mountains. A range of high land, called the "Knobs," extends from the falls of the Ohio to the Wabash, which in many places produces a broken surface. Bordering on all the principal streams, except the Ohio, are belts of "bottom" and prairie. Between the Wabash and Lake Michigan the country is generally level, abounding alternately in woodlands, prairies, lakes, and swamps. A range of hills runs parallel with the Ohio, from the mouth of the Great Miami to Blue river, alternately approaching to within a few rods, and receding to the distance of two miles. Immediately below Blue river the hills disappear, and the country immediately becomes level. The prairies of this state are of two kinds, the "river" and the "upland." The former are bottoms, destitute of timber; the latter are from 30 to 100 feet or more in elevation, and are far more numerous and extensive. The soil of these plains, or table-lands, are often as deep and fertile as the best bottoms. The prairies bordering on the Wabash are particularly rich, varying from two to twenty feet in depth. In truth, no state in the Union can show a greater extent of fertile land, in one body, than Indiana.

Rivers and Lakes.—The principal rivers are, the Ohio, which flows along the entire southern boundary; the Wabash, which bounds the state partly on the west; the Patoka, Tippecanoe, Eel, Salamanic, Plein, Theakiki, St. Mary's, St. Joseph's, White, Whitewater, and Kankakee, a branch of the Illinois. Besides Lake Michigan, there are English and Beaver lakes, all of which lie at the northwestern part of the state.

Climate.—The climate is generally healthy, and resembling that of Ohio and Illinois. In all places situated near stagnant waters or sluggish streams, fevers and bilious attacks prevail during the hotter months of the year. The Wabash is generally closed in the winter, and may be safely crossed on the ice. In the central and southern parts of the state snow seldom falls to a greater depth than six inches; but in the northern parts it is sometimes from a foot to eighteen inches deep.

Cities and Chief Towns.—The city of Indianapolis is the seat of government. Madison and New Albany are cities. The other populous towns are, Bedford, Bloomington, Brookville, Columbus, Charlestown, Covington, Corydon, Crawfordsville, Centreville, Danville, Greensburg, Greencastle, Lafayette, Lawrenceburg, Martinsville, Mt. Vernon, Newcastle, Paoli, Rockville, Rushville, Shelbyville, Salem, Terre Haute, Vincennes, Vevay, and Winchester.

Productive Resources.—The staple productions of this state are, horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, butter, cheese, wax, furs, skins, wool, sugar, wine, hops, hay, hemp, flax, tobacco, wheat, barley, rye, buckwheat, oats, potatoes, and Indian corn. Among the mineral resources may be mentioned, iron, coal, and Epsom salts.

INDIANA
Scale of Miles
10 20 30 40 50
LAKE MICHIGAN
MICHIGAN
ILLINOIS
OHIO
KENTUCKY
Chicago
Berrien
Branch
Michigan City
St. Joseph R.
Elkhart
Lima
STEUBEN
Angola
LA GRANGE
ELKHART
Goshen
South Bend
ST. JOSEPH
La Porte
LA PORTE
PORTER
LAKE
Valparaiso
Crown Pt.
English L.
MARSHALL
Plymouth
Milford
KOSCIUSKO
Augusta
NOBLE
DEKALB
Auburn
STARK
Kankakee R.
Montgomery
NEWTON
Winnemac
Tippecanoe R.
Warsaw
Columbia
Perry
Fairport
Maumee R.
WHITLEY
Whitley
Rochester
FULTON
PULASKI
New Boston
Rensselaer
Iroquois R.
West Bedford
WHITE
Monticello
CASS
MIAMI
WABASH
Wabash
Huntington
HUNTINGTON
Decatur
Bluffton
Wabash R.
ADAMS
Logansport
Red R.
Peru
Mississinewa R.
BENTON
Oxford
Carrollton
CARROLL
Delphi
Battle Ground
RICHARDVILLE
Kocomo
Marion
GRANT
WELLS
BLACKFORD
Penn
Hartford
JAY
Portland
WARREN
Williamsport
La Fayette
TIPPECANOE
Newtown
Frankfort
CLINTON
TIPTON
Canton
Wheeling
MADISON
DELAWARE
Winchester
Muncie T.
Anderson T.
RANDOLPH
Bloomingport
Danville
Covington
FOUNTAIN
Newport
MONTGOMERY
Crawfords V.
Lebanon
BOONE
Jamestown
HAMILTON
Noblesville
HENRY
Newcastle
Dublin
WAYNE
Richmond
Centreville
VERMILLION
Rockville
PARKE
Roseville
PUTNAM
Danville
HENDRICKS
Piketon
MARION
INDIANAPOLIS
HANCOCK
Greenfield
RUSH
Connersville
Rushville
Liberty
UNION
FAYETTE
Green Castle
Far West
MORGAN
Martins V.
JOHNSON
Franklin
SHELBY
Shelbyville
Terre Haute
National Road
CLAY
VIGO
Bowling Green
OWEN
W. Branch
Middletown
Spencer
Bloomington
Nashville
BROWN
Columbus
BARTHOLOMEW
DECATUR
Greensburg
Fairfield
Brookville
FRANKLIN
DEARBORN
Lawrenceb'g
Aurora
OHIO
Benton
SULLIVAN
Carlisle
GREENE
Bloomfield
MONROE
JENNINGS
Vernon
Versailles
RIPLEY
JACKSON
Brownstown
Bedford
LAWRENCE
Edwardsport
KNOX
Washington
Vincennes
White R.
Wabash River
DAVIES
MARTIN
Mt. Pleasant
E. Branch of White R.
Orleans
Paoli
ORANGE
Salem
WASHINGTON
SCOTT
Lexington
Madison
JEFFERSON
SWITZERLAND
Vevay
CLARKE
Charleston
Ohio River
Petersburg
Jasper
PIKE
Princeton
GIBSON
DUBOIS
CRAWFORD
Fredonia
FLOYD
New Albany
Jeffersonville
Louisville
New Harmony
POSEY
Mt. Vernon
VANDERBURGH
WARRICK
Boonville
Evansville
SPENCER
PERRY
Rome
Troy
Rockport
Corydon
HARRISON
Longitude West from Washington
42
41
40
39
38
10
9
8

Manufactures.—In 1850 there were in Indiana 4,326 manufacturing establishments, which produced $500 and upward each annually. The total amount of manufacturing capital then in the state was over $7,000,000, having more than doubled since 1840.

Railroads and Canals.—Indiana has about 1,000 miles of railroad already completed, and in successful operation, and new lines projected. The principal canal in Indiana is the Wabash and Erie, 459 miles long, connecting the waters of Lake Erie with those of the Ohio river; next in importance is the Whitewater canal, extending from Lawrenceburg to Cambridge, 76 miles.

Commerce.—Indiana has no direct foreign commerce, its exports being shipped at the ports of other states. Its river and lake trade is considerable, and increasing.

Education.—The collegiate institutions of Indiana are, the State university, at Bloomington, founded in 1827; Hanover college, at South Hanover, in 1829; Wabash college, at Crawfordsville, in 1833; Franklin college, at Franklin, in 1837; Indiana Asbury university, in 1839; St. Gabriel's college, at Vincennes, in 1843. There is a law school attached to the state university, and medical schools at Laporte and Indianapolis. There are about 6,000 academies and high schools in the state. The permanent school fund is nearly a million of dollars.

Population.—In 1800, 2,640; in 1810, 24,520, exclusive of Indians; in 1820, 147,178; in 1830, 343,031; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows:—

Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.
Adams	5,797	2,264	Hendricks	14,083	11,264	Porter	5,234	2,162
Allen	16,919	5,942	Henry	17,605	15,128	Posey	12,549	9,683
Bartholomew	12,428	10,046	Howard	6,657	new co.	Pulaski	2,595	561
Benton	1,144	new co.	Huntington	7,850	1,579	Putnam	18,615	16,843
Blackford	2,860	1,226	Jackson	11,047	8,961	Randolph	14,725	10,684
Boone	11,631	8,121	Jasper	3,540	1,267	Ripley	14,820	10,392
Browne	4,846	2,364	Jay	7,047	3,863	Rush	16,445	16,456
Carroll	11,015	7,819	Jefferson	23,916	16,614	Scott	5,885	4,242
Cass	11,021	5,480	Jennings	12,096	8,829	Shelby	15,502	12,005
Clark	15,828	15,595	Johnson	12,101	9,352	Spencer	8,616	6,305
Clay	7,944	5,567	Knox	11,084	10,657	Stark	557	149
Clinton	11,869	7,508	Kosciusko	10,243	4,170	Steuben	6,104	2,578
Crawford	6,524	5,282	La Grange	8,387	3,664	St. Joseph	10,954	6,425
Daviess	10,352	6,720	Lake	3,991	1,468	Sullivan	10,141	8,315
Dearborn	20,166	19,327	La Porte	12,145	8,184	Switzerland	12,932	9,920
Decatur	15,107	12,171	Lawrence	12,097	11,782	Tippecanoe	19,377	13,724
De Kalb	8,251	1,968	Madison	12,375	8,874	Tipton	3,532	new co.
Delaware	10,843	8,843	Marion	24,013	16,080	Union	6,944	8,017
Dubois	6,321	3,632	Marshall	5,348	1,651	Vanderburg	11,414	6,250
Elkhart	12,690	6,660	Martin	5,941	3,875	Vermilion	8,661	8,274
Fayette	10,217	9,837	Miami	11,304	3,048	Vigo	12,289	12,076
Floyd	14,875	9,454	Monroe	11,286	10,143	Wabash	12,138	2,756
Fountain	13,253	11,218	Montgomery	18,084	14,438	Warren	7,387	5,656
Franklin	17,968	13,349	Morgan	14,576	10,741	Warwick	8,811	6,321
Fulton	5,982	1,993	Noble	7,946	2,702	Washington	17,040	15,265
Gibson	10,771	8,977	Ohio	5,308	new co.	Wayne	25,320	23,290
Grant	11 092	4,875	Orange	10,809	9,602	Wells	6,152	1,822
Greene	12,313	8,321	Owen	12,106	8,359	White	4,761	1,832
Hamilton	12,684	9,855	Parke	14,968	13,499	Whitly	5,190	1,237
Hancock	9,698	7,538	Perry	7,268	4,655			
Harrison	15,286	12,459	Pike	7,720	4,769	Total	988,416	685,866

Government.—The legislative authority is vested in a senate and house of representatives: the senate is not to exceed 50 members, elected for four years; the representatives, not to exceed 100 in number, are chosen for two years. The executive power is vested in a governor, elected by the people for four years, but not eligible the next four years. A lieutenant-governor is also chosen in the same manner, and for the same term. The elections are held once in two years, on the second Tuesday in October. All elections by the people are by ballot, and decided by a plurality of votes; all elections by the legislature are *viva voce*. The legislature meets biennially, at Indianapolis, the first Monday in January. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court of not less than three, nor more than five judges, elected by the people at large, for a term of six years; in circuit courts, the judges of which (one in each) are elected by the people in each judicial circuit for a term of six years; and in such inferior

courts as the legislature may establish. The right of suffrage extends to every white male citizen of the United States, of the age of 21 years and upward, who shall have resided in the state during the six months immediately preceding an election.

History.—This state embraces a portion of the ancient territory of Upper Louisiana, as held by the French prior to 1763, when it was ceded to England, together with Canada and Acadia. The first permanent settlement was made at Vincennes, in about the year 1690. At the close of the revolutionary war, and by the treaty of 1783, the country was claimed under the charter of Virginia, and held by that state until ceded to the United States, in 1787. It was then made a part of the territory northwest of Ohio river. When Ohio was made a separate territory, in 1800, Indiana and Illinois remained united, and continued under one government until 1809, when each became a distinct territory. In 1816 Indiana was admitted into the Union as an independent state. A new constitution was adopted in 1851.

GOVERNORS OF INDIANA TERRITORY.

William Henry Harrison.....1800 Thomas Posey.....1813

GOVERNORS UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

Jonathan Jennings...1816	James B. Ray.....1825	David Wallace.....1837	James Whitcomb....1843
William Hendricks..1822	Noah Noble.....1831	Samuel Bigger.....1840	Joseph A. Wright. ..1849

ILLINOIS.

Illinois, sometimes called the "Prairie state," is situated between 37° and 42° 30′ north latitude, and 87° 49′ and 91° 30′ longitude west from Greenwich; and is bounded north by Wisconsin, east by Lake Michigan and Indiana, south by Ohio river, which separates it from Kentucky, and west by Mississippi river, which separates it from Missouri and Iowa. Its superficial era is 55,400 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The general surface of this state may be regarded as a gentle plain, more or less rolling, inclined in the direction of its rivers. The northern and southern sections, however, are somewhat broken, but no portion of the territory is traversed by ranges of mountains, nor hills. It is estimated that Illinois contains more arable land than any other state in the Union. In that portion north of Kaskaskia river the prairie country predominates; and it is computed that two thirds of the state are covered with this class of lands. Many portions of them are undulating, entirely dry, and abound in wholesome springs; but as a general rule, they consist of plains; and in the true meaning of the term, in French, they are "meadows," presenting every degree of fertility, down to extreme barrenness. Many of them exhibit alluvial deposites, which prove that they have once been morasses, and perhaps lakes. In numerous instances, there are thickets, or groves of timber, amid these prairies, containing from 100 to 2,000 acres each, which resemble oases in the desert, or islands in the sea. Along the borders of many of the streams are rich "bottoms," or alluvial deposites. The "American bottom" commences at the confluence of the Mississippi and Kaskaskia rivers, extending northward to the mouth of the Missouri, a distance of about eighty miles, and comprises an area of 288,000 acres. It is bounded on the east by a chain of "bluffs," some of which occur in parallel

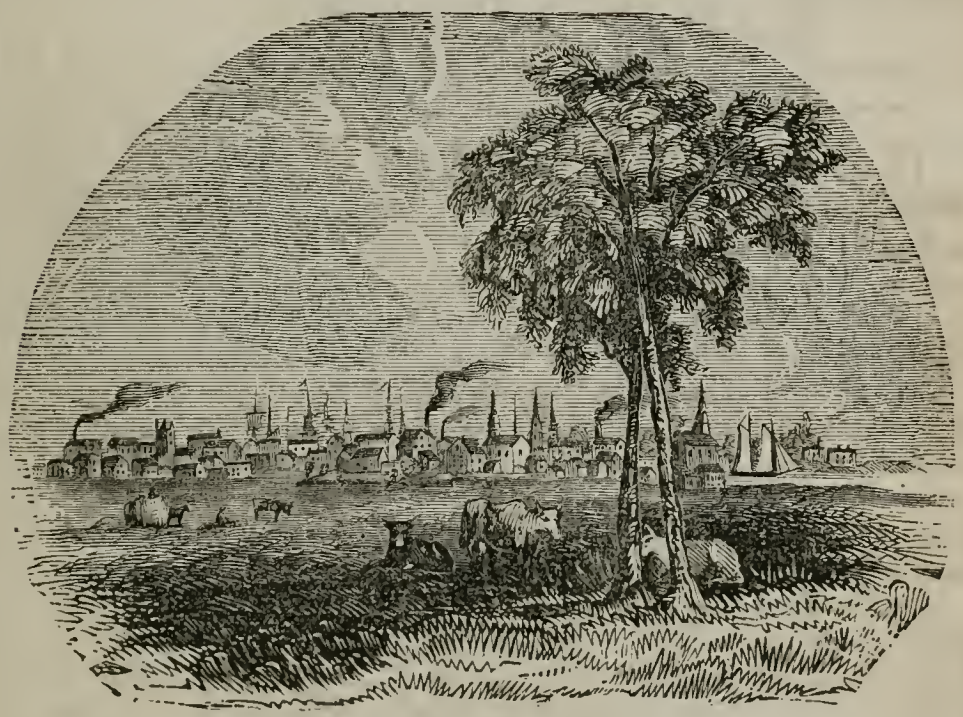
ILLINOIS
Scale of Miles
10 30 50 70
Longitude West from Washington
WISCONSIN
IOWA
MISSOURI
INDIANA
KENTUCKY
Mississippi River
Missouri River
Ohio Riv
Wabash R.
Illinois R.
Rock R.
Kaskaskia R.
Mississippi Riv.
Rock Island
Galena
Lead Mines
Du Buque
Bellevue
JO DAVIESS
STEPHENSON
Freeport
WINNEBAGO
Rockford
BOONE
McHenry
Dorr
Little Fort
LAKE
MCHENRY
Mt. Carroll
CARROLL
OGLE
Oregon City
Sycamore
Elgin
COOK
Grand Detour
Syracuse
KANE
Geneva
DU PAGE
Chicago
WHITE SIDE
Dixon
LEE
DE KALB
Napiersville
Lyndon
Yorkville
KENDALL
Lockport
Juliet
La Moine
BEREAU
LASALLE
Peru
Morrisiane
WILL
Wilmington
Rockville
ROCK ISLAND
HENRY
Cambridge
Princeton
Ottawa
Millersburg
Wethersfield
PUTNAM
Hennepin
GRUNDY
Kankakee R.
MERCER
Toulon
STARK
MARSHALL
Lacon
Oquawka
HENDERSON
Monmouth
WARREN
KNOX
Knoxville
Chillicothe
PEORIA
Patridge Pt.
WOODFORD
LIVINGSTON
Pontiac
Middleport
IROQUOIS
Peoria
Versailles
Josephine
Lexington
Ellisville
Nauvoo
MC DONOUGH
FULTON
Trenton
Wilkesboro
Milford
Carthage
Macomb
Lewiston
TAZEWELL
Bloomington
Cheneys Grove
HANCOCK
Warsaw
Doddsville
Delavan
MC LEAN
Randolphs Grove
Havanna
SCHUYLER
Rushville
MASON
Postville
DE WITT
Urbanna
Danville
ADAMS
MARQUETTE
Columbus
CASS
Beards T.
MENARD
Petersburg
LOGAN
Clinton
PIATT
Monticello
CHAMPAIGN
VERMILLION
Quincy
Mt. Sterling
BROWN
Virginia
MACON
Chillicothe
Meredosia
MORGAN
SANGAMON
Decatur
SPRINGFIELD
Mt. Auburn
Jacksonville
Hermitage
EDGAR
Paris
Pittsfield
PIKE
Winchester
SCOTT
Auburn
MOULTRIE
COLES
Edinburg
C.H.
Charleston
GREENE
Carrollton
MACOUPIN
Douglass
CHRISTIAN
Shelleville
Paradise
Marshall
CALHOUN
Carlinville
MONTGOMERY
SHELBY
CUMBERLAND
CLARK
Greenup
Gilead
Jerseyville
JERSEY
Hillsboro
Woodburn
FAYETTE
Ewington
EFFINGHAM
JASPER
CRAWFORD
Palestine
Alton
Greenville
National Rd.
Vandalia
Newton
BOND
Edwardsville
Lewisville
RICHLAND
LAWRENCE
Olney
Lawrence V.
MADISON
MARION
CLAY
St. Louis
Carlisle
ST. CLAIR
CLINTON
Salem
Walnut Hill
WAYNE
Belleville
Waterloo
Nashville
Fairfield
Albion
EDWARDS
WABASH
Mt. Carmel
MONROE
WASHINGTON
Mt. Vernon
JEFFERSON
RANDOLPH
Kaskaskia
Pickneyville
PERRY
McLeansboro
WHITE
Carmi
Benton
HAMILTON
FRANKLIN
JACKSON
Browns V.
WILLIAMSON
SALINE
Equality
GALL
Marion
Shawneetown
ATIN
HARDIN
UNION
Jonesboro
JOHNSON
Vienna
POPE
Elizabeth T.
Golconda
ALEXANDER
Unity
PULASKI
MASSAC
Metropolis City
Caledonia
Cairo
14 13 12 11
42 41 40 39 38

ridges, while others are of a conical shape, formed of lime rock, from 50 to 200 feet in height.

Rivers and Lakes.—The principal rivers are, the Mississippi, which bounds the state on the west, the Ohio, which bounds it on the south, the Illinois, Kaskaskia, Sangamon, Little Wabash, Muddy, Saline, Rock, Embarras, Fox, the Wabash, the principal river in the state, which forms a portion of the eastern boundary, Des Plaines, and Vermilion. Besides Lake Michigan, which lies on the northeast corner, this state contains Peoria lake, an expansion of Illinois river.

Climate.—The climate of this state is generally healthy, and the air pure and serene, except in the vicinity of wet, low lands, or stagnant pools. The winters, which are cold, are somewhat milder than those of the Atlantic states in the same latitude. Snow seldom falls to the depth of six inches, and it as rarely remains on the ground more than ten or twelve days. The Mississippi is sometimes frozen over as far down as St. Louis, sufficiently strong to be crossed on the ice. The summers are warm, particularly in the southern part, but the intensity of the heat is modified by the breeze.

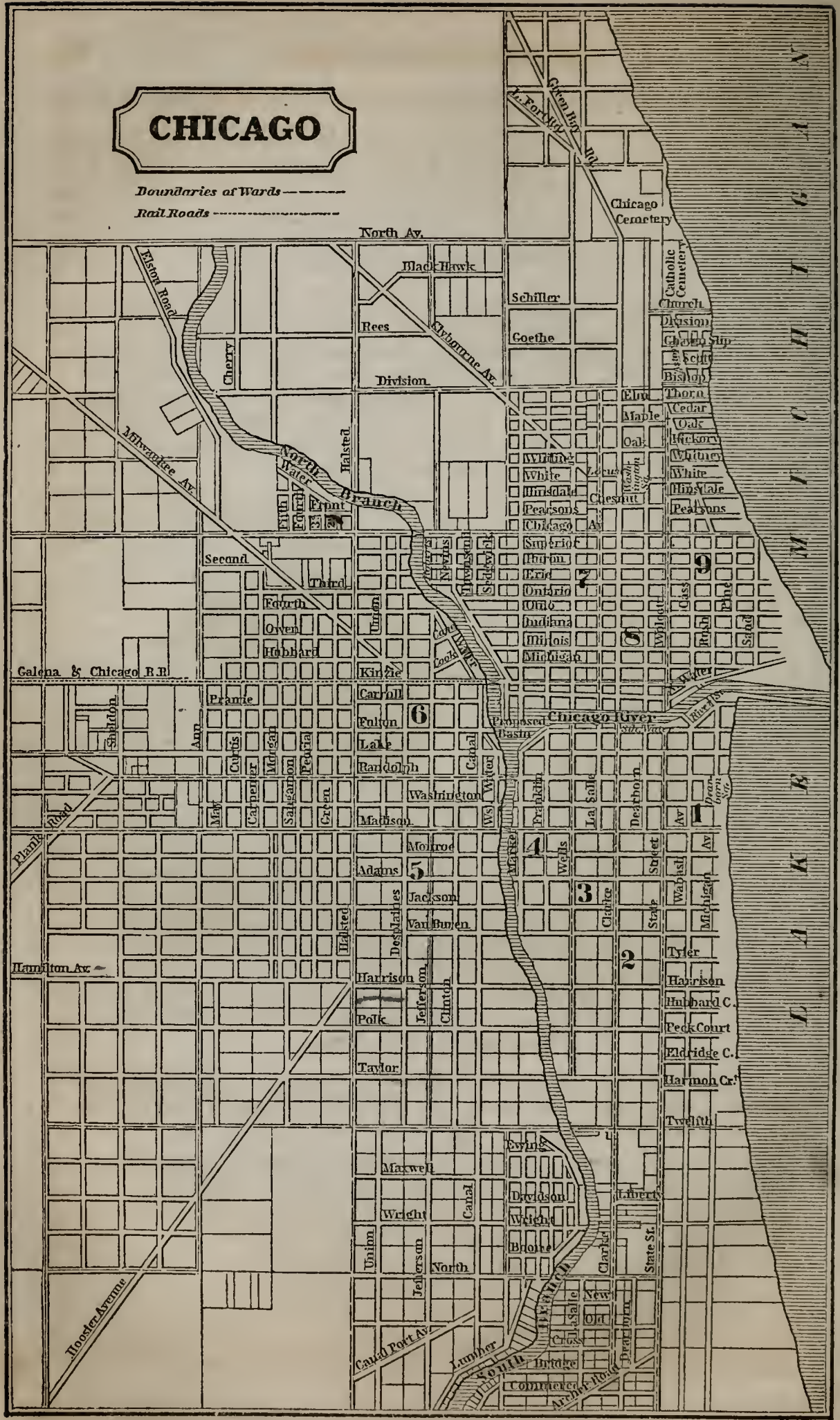
Cities and Chief Towns.—The city of Springfield is the seat of government. Chicago,* Alton and Galena, are cities. The other populous towns are



CITY OF CHICAGO, ILLINOIS.

Belleville, Carrolton, Danville, Edwardsville, Equality, Jacksonville, Joliet, Knoxville, Kaskaskia, Lewistown, Lawrenceburg, Peoria, Pittsfield, Quincy, Shawneetown, and Shelbyville.

* Chicago, the commercial emporium of Lake Michigan, and of the adjacent states, is remarkable for rapid increase in population, wealth, and enterprise. It occupies both sides of the river from which it takes its name, and is built on the border of a prairie, elevated a little above the level of the lake. Few towns have a more advantageous position. The river, formed by the confluence of two branches, in the upper part of the city, is deep and spacious enough for a vast number of steamboats, and vessels of various kinds, which here assemble from various points on the lakes, the St. Lawrence, the Erie and Welland canals, and thickly line the wharves for some distance up the streams, which form the harbor. The shore of the lake, naturally shallow, has been extended into deep water, by means of two piers, which, projecting from both sides of the harbor, protect it from the accumulation of sand. The streets of Chicago are generally broad and pleasant, lined with trees, and leading to the open prairie, or affording fine views of the lake. The buildings have the appearance of unusual comfort and convenience, while many of the public edifices are surpassed by those of few cities in the Union. Large warehouses and stores, five or six stories high, splendid hotels, churches, fine public schools, and dwellings frequently magnificent, are some of the structures which strike the eye, and excite the admiration. Twenty years ago the lands of the adjacent prairie were the property of the Pottawatomie Indians. In 1833 the tribe removed, by treaty, to lands in Missouri, and gave up their prairie to the settlers of Chicago. Since then it has


CHICAGO
Boundaries of Wards
Rail Roads
North Av.
Black Hawk
Schiller
Goethe
Rees
Division
Clybourne Av.
Elston Road
Cherry
Milwaukee Av.
North Branch
Halsted
Water
Front
Fifth
Fourth
Second
Third
Fourth
Owen
Hubbard
Union
Kinzie
Carroll
Fulton
Lake
Randolph
Washington
Madison
Monroe
Adams
Jackson
Van Buren
Harrison
Polk
Taylor
Ewing
Maxwell
Wright
Union
Jefferson
North
Canal
Canal Port Av.
Lumber
Hoosier Avenue
Galena & Chicago R.R.
Sheldon
Ann
Curtis
Morgan
Peoria
Carpenter
Sangamon
Green
May
Plank Road
Hamilton Av.
Desplaines
Jefferson
Clinton
Chicago Cemetery
Catholic Cemetery
Church
Division
Chavan Slip
Scott
Bishop
Thorn
Elm
Cedar
Maple
Oak
Hickory
Whitney
Whiting
White
Hinsdale
Pearsons
Chicago Av.
Superior
Huron
Erie
Ontario
Ohio
Indiana
Illinois
Michigan
Chesnut
Locust
Washington Sq.
Wolcott
Cass
Rush
Pine
Sand
Water
Proposed Basin
Chicago River
Side Water
River St.
Wells
Franklin
La Salle
Dearborn
Clarke
State Street
Wabash Av.
Michigan Av.
Dearborn Sq.
Tyler
Harrison
Hubbard C.
Peck Court
Eldridge C.
Harmon Cr.
Twelfth
Liberty
State St.
Clarke
Dearborn
La Salle
New
Old
Cross
Bridge
Commerce
Archer Road
South Branch
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
LAKE MICHIGAN

Productive Resources.—The staple products are, horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, butter, cheese, wool, cotton, hemp, flax, hops, hay, wine, wheat, barley, oats, buckwheat, potatoes, and Indian corn. Among the mineral resources are, zinc, copper, iron, and lime. Bituminous coal may be found in nearly every county in the state. Common salt is procured by evaporating the water of salt springs. The lead mines in the vicinity of Galena are very extensive, and of great value to the state. The mineral has been found in every portion of a tract of more than fifty miles in extent. The ore lies in beds, or horizontal strata, varying in thickness from one inch to several feet.

Manufactures.—In 1850 there were, in Illinois, 3,099 manufacturing establishments, producing each $500 and upward annually. The manufactures consist mostly of woollen fabrics, machinery, saddlery, agricultural implements, &c.

Railroads and Canals.—There are about 1,200 miles of railroad completed and in course of construction in this state; some of them, particularly the Central railroad, are very important. The Illinois and Michigan canal, connecting the waters of Lake Erie, at Chicago, with those of the Illinois river at Peru, is one of the most important works of internal improvement in the country. It is the connecting link of an unbroken internal water communication from the Atlantic, off Sandy Hook, New York, by the way of the lakes, the Illinois and Mississippi rivers, to the gulf of Mexico. The canal is 113 miles long, 60 feet wide, and 6 feet deep, and designed for boats of 120 tons. It cost over $8,000,000.

Commerce.—The direct foreign commerce of Illinois is, of course, from its insular position, very small; but its coasting and lake trade is important, amounting, in 1850, to over $10,000,000.

Education.—The principal collegiate institutions in Illinois are, the Illinois college, at Jacksonville, founded in 1829; the M'Kendree college, at Lebanon, in 1834; the Shurtleff college, at Upper Alton, in 1835; the Knox Manual Labor college, at Galesburg, in 1837; and the College of St. Mary of the Lakes, at Chicago, in 1846. There are about 100 academies and 3,000 common schools in the state.

Government.—The legislative authority is vested in a senate, the members of which, 25 in number, are elected for four years, one half every two years; and a house of representatives, 75 in number, elected for two years. Senators must be thirty years of age, and five years inhabitants of the state. Representatives must be twenty-five years of age, citizens of the United States, and three years inhabitants of the state. The executive power is vested in a governor and lieutenant-governor, chosen by a plurality of votes, once in four years, on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November, who must be thirty-five years of age, citizens of the United States for fourteen years, and residents of the state for ten years. The governor is not eligible for two consecutive terms. A majority of members elected to both houses may defeat the governor's veto. A majority of the members elected to each house is required for the passage of any law. The legislature meets biennially at Springfield, on the first Monday in January. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, of three judges,

continued to increase, and of late with unexampled rapidity. The Illinois and Michigan canal, by connecting the navigation of the lake with that of the great river of the state, has caused the current of trade, which formerly flowed toward Mississippi river, to turn toward the "garden city," making it the market of the rich productions of Illinois, and of vast quantities of goods from New York and other eastern cities. The branches of commerce in which Chicago is most extensively engaged are lumber, grain, and cattle. It exceeds all other western cities in the quantity of lumber exported, vast forests of pine and other trees covering the northern parts of Illinois; while immense numbers of cattle from the interior are here slaughtered and transported eastward, frequently to New York. The Illinois and Michigan canal which has contributed so largely to the growth of Chicago, extends to Peru, connecting the waters of the great lakes with the Illinois and Mississippi rivers. The Galena and Chicago Union railroad commences at this point, and extends to Galena, the head of steamboat navigation on the Mississippi, and the depot of a region rich in lead. The Central road will unite it with the Mississippi river, near the mouth of the Ohio, while the Southern and Central Michigan roads connect it with the eastern states. The population of Chicago in 1840 was 4,479; in 1850, 28,269; in 1852, 38,733.

elected by the people, for a term of nine years, one being chosen triennially; also in circuit courts, of one judge each, elected by the people in nine judicial circuits, into which the state is divided, for six years; and county courts, of one judge each, elected by the people for four years. All white male citizens, 21 years of age, resident in the state for one year, may vote at elections. No state bank can be created, or revived. Acts creating banks must be submitted to the people. Stockholders are individually liable to the amount of their shares.

POPULATION.—In 1810, 12,282; in 1820, 55,211; in 1830, 157,455; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows :—

COUNTIES.	1850.	1840.
Adams	26,508	14,476
Alexander	2,484	3,313
Bond	6,144	5,060
Boone	7,626	1,705
Brown	7,198	4,183
Bureau	8,841	3,067
Calhoun	3,231	1,741
Carroll	4,586	1,023
Cass	7,253	2,981
Champaigne	2,649	1,475
Christian	3,202	1,878
Clark	9,532	7,453
Clay	4,289	3,228
Clinton	5,139	3,718
Coles	9,335	9,616
Cook	43,385	10,201
Crawford	7,135	4,422
Cumberland	3,720	new co.
De Kalb	7,540	1,697
De Witt	5,002	3,247
Du Page	9,290	3,535
Edgar	10,692	8,225
Edwards	3,524	3,070
Effingham	3,799	1,675
Fayette	8,075	6,328
Franklin	5,681	3,682
Fulton	22,508	13,142
Gallatin	5,448	10,760
Green	12,429	11,951
Grundy	3,023	new co.
Hamilton	6,362	3,945
Hancock	14,652	9,946
Hardin	2,887	1,378
Henderson	4,612	new co.
Henry	3,807	1,260
Iroquois	4,149	1,695
Jackson	5,862	3,566
Jasper	3,220	1,472
Jefferson	8,109	5,762
Jersey	7,354	4,535
Jo Daviess	18,604	6,180
Johnson	4,113	3,626
Kane	16,703	6,501
Kendall	7,730	new co.
Knox	13,279	7,060
Lake	14,226	2,634
La Salle	17,815	9,348
Lawrence	6,121	7,092
Lee	5,292	2,035
Livingston	1,552	759
Logan	5,128	2,333
Macon	3,988	3,039
Macoupin	12,355	7,826
M'Lean	10,163	6,565
M'Donough	7,616	5,308
M'Henry	14,979	2,578
Madison	20,436	14,433
Marion	6,720	4,742
Marshall	5,180	1,849
Mason	5,921	new co.
Massac	4,092	new co.
Menard	6,349	4,431
Mercer	5,246	2,352
Montgomery	6,276	4,490
Monroe	7,679	4,481
Moultrie	3,234	new co.
Morgan	16,064	19,549
Ogle	10,020	3,479
Peoria	17,547	6,153
Perry	5,278	3,222
Platt	1,606	new co.
Pike	18,819	11,728
Pope	3,975	4,094
Pulaski	2,265	new co.
Putnam	3,924	2,131
Randolph	11,079	7,944
Richland	4,012	new co.
Rock Island	6,937	2,610
Saline	5,588	new co.
Sangamon	19,228	14,716
Scott	7,914	6,215
Schuyler	10,573	6,972
Shelby	7,807	6,659
Stark	3,710	1,573
St. Clair	20,181	13,631
Stevenson	11,666	2,809
Tazewell	12,052	7,221
Union	7,615	5,524
Vermilion	11,492	9,303
Wabash	4,690	4,240
Warren	8,176	6,739
Washington	6,953	4,810
Wayne	6,825	5,133
White	8,925	7,919
Whitesides	5,361	2,514
Will	16,703	10,167
Williamson	7,216	4,457
Winnebago	11,773	4,609
Woodford	4,416	new co.
Total	851,470	476,183

HISTORY.—This state embraces a part of Upper Louisiana, as held by the French prior to 1763, when it was ceded to England, together with Canada and Acadia. The first permanent settlement was made at Kaskaskia, in 1685, although La Salle had built a fort, called Crèvecœur, on Illinois river, five years before. At the close of the revolutionary war, in 1783, this country was claimed under the charter of Virginia, and held by that state until ceded to the United States, in 1787. It was then made a part of the territory northwest of Ohio river. When Ohio was made a separate territory, in 1800, Illinois and Indiana were formed into another territory, and remained as such until 1809, when they were divided into two. In 1812, a territorial government was formed, with a legislature and one delegate to Congress. In 1818 a state constitution was was formed, and Illinois admitted into the Union as an independent state. The present constitution of the state was adopted by a state convention in August, 1847, and accepted by the people in March, 1848. Motto of the seal, "State Sovereignty; National Union."

GOVERNORS OF ILLINOIS.

Ninian Edwards, Governor of the Territory of Illinois, 1809

UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

Shadrach Bond.....1818	John Reynolds.....1830	Thomas Ford.....1842
Edward Coles.....1822	Joseph Duncan.....1834	Augustus C. French.....1846
Ninian Edwards.....1826	Thomas Carlin.....1838	Joel A. Matteson.....1853

MISSOURI.

The state of Missouri embraces a part of Upper Louisiana, as held by the French prior to 1763, when it was ceded to Spain, together with all her North American territory. It is situated between 36° 30′ and 40° 30′ north latitude, and 89° 20′ and 96° west longitude from Greenwich; and is bounded north by Iowa, east by Illinois and Kentucky, from which it is separated by the Mississippi, south by Arkansas, and west by Arkansas, the Indian Territory, and Nebraska, from a part of the latter of which it is separated by the river Missouri, whence it derives its name. Its superficial area is 67,380 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—This state presents a great variety of soil, as well as of surface; but, taking it as a whole, it is hilly, and in many parts broken and even mountainous. Starting from a point opposite the mouth of the Kaskaskias, and extending southwesterly, there is a vast ridge, rising into rocky elevations, which divides the country into two unequal slopes. The southeastern angle of the state is level, a large portion of which is annually inundated. The western counties are divided into prairies and forests, and much of the soil is good. North of the Missouri the surface is somewhat diversified, presenting a fair proportion of woodlands, prairies, and other arable soil. The lands bordering on the Missouri are exceedingly rich and fertile, often consisting of strata of dark-colored alluvion, of unknown depth, but more frequently mixed with sand. In receding from the river, the land in general is gradual in its ascent, but sometimes rises abruptly into elevated barrens, flinty ridges, and limestone cliffs. The land of this state may be regarded either as fertile or very poor, there being but little soil of an intermediate quality; it is either bottom land, or cliff; prairie, or barren; sterile ridges, or sloping woodlands.

Mountains.—The state is traversed by many ridges of the Ozark mountains, which have a breadth of from 100 to 150 miles; but although they often shoot up into precipitous peaks, it is believed they rarely exceed 2,000 feet in height. In St. François county exists the celebrated Iron mountain, which has an elevation of 350 feet above the level of the surrounding plain, is a mile and a half across its summit, and yields 80 per cent. of pure metal. Five miles south is another pyramidal mountain of the oxyde of iron, known as the Pilot Knob, 300 feet high, with a base of a mile and a half in circumference. . This pyramid also yields 80 per cent. of pure metal.

Rivers and Lakes.—The principal rivers are, the Mississippi, Missouri, Osage, Salt, Gasconade, Chariton, Maramec, St. Francis, White Water, Wachita, Big Black, and Des Moines. In the southeast part of the state are several lakes, the most noted of which are Pemisco, St. Mary's, and Nic Carny.

Climate.—The climate is remarkably dry, pure, and serene; and remote from the streams and inundated lands it is healthy, but is subject to great extremes of heat and cold. The Mississippi is usually frozen, and passable on the ice, by the first of January. The extremes of temperature vary from 100° Fahrenheit to 8° below zero.

Productive Resources.—The principal products of this state are horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, sugar, wax, wool, hay, tobacco, cotton, hemp, flax, lumber, wheat, rye, barley, buckwheat, potatoes, oats, and Indian corn. The mineral wealth of Missouri, particularly lead, iron, and bituminous coal, may be regarded as inexhaustible. The counties of Washington, Madison,

MISSOURI
Scale of miles
10 30 50 70
IOWAS
DELAWARES
KANSAS
SHAWNEES
POTAWATOMIES
OSAGES
CHEROKEES
ARKANSAS
ILLINOIS
KENTUCKY
TENNESSEE
Missouri River
Kansas River
Osage River
Neosho R.
Arkansas R.
Mississippi R.
Illinois R.
Ohio River
White R.
Tennessee R.
St. Francis R.
Osage R.
Gasconade R.
Kaskaskia R.
Mississippi Riv.
Lon. West from Washington
New Market
ATCHISON
NODAWAY
HARRISON
MERCER
SCHUYLER
CLARK
HOLT
ANDREW
GENTRY
WORTH
SULLIVAN
ADAIR
KNOX
LEWIS
DE KALB
CALDWELL
LIVINGSTON
GRUNDY
LINN
MACON
SHELBY
MARION
BUCHANAN
CLINTON
PLATTE
CLAY
RAY
CARROLL
CHARITON
RANDOLPH
MONROE
PIKE
HOWARD
BOONE
AUDRAIN
CALLAWAY
MONTGOMERY
LINCOLN
WARREN
ST. CHARLES
SALINE
LAFAYETTE
JACKSON
JOHNSON
PETTIS
COOPER
MORGAN
MILLER
OSAGE
FRANKLIN
JEFFERSON
ST. LOUIS
CASS
HENRY
BENTON
CAMDEN
GASCONADE
WASHINGTON
ST. FRANCOIS
ST. GENEVIEVE
BATES
ST. CLAIR
HICKORY
POLK
PULASKI
CRAWFORD
PERRY
CEDAR
DADE
LACLEDE
WRIGHT
TEXAS
REYNOLDS
WAYNE
MADISON
CAPE GIRARDEAU
SCOTT
JASPER
GREENE
LAWRENCE
SHANNON
STODDARD
NEWTON
TANEY
OZARK
RIPLEY
BUTLER
BARRY
OREGON
MISSISSIPPI
DUNKLIN
NEW MADRID
DONALDSON
Independence
Lexington
Marshall
Boonville
Fayette
Columbia
Mexico
Paris
Hannibal
New London
Palmyra
Kirksville
Memphis
Princeton
Trenton
Chillicothe
Bloomington
Carrollton
Richmond
Liberty
Platte City
Weston
Plattsburg
Gallatin
Linneus
Shelbyville
Huntsville
Bowling Green
Troy
Alton
Vandalia
Danville
Fulton
Warrenton
Hermann
Union
Linn
Hillsboro
Herculaneum
Kaskaskia
Potosi
Steelville
Ste. Genevieve
Farmington
Jackson
Cape Girardeau
Cairo
Charleston
Bloomfield
New Madrid
Greenville
Ellsworth
Iron Mt.
Fredericton
Lead M.
Wayneville
Versailles
Tuscumbia
Warsaw
Osage R.
Eric
Clinton
Harrisonville
Batesville
Osceola
Hermitage
Buffalo
Bolivar
Greenfield
Springfield
Harrisville
Copper Mines
Carthage
Mt. Vernon
Neosho
Baibridge
Van Buren
Forsyth
Cassville
Jefferson City
Columbia
Warrensburg
Georgetown
Versailles
Sparta
Dallas
Princeton
Lancaster
Kirksville
Edina
Monticello
Athens
Oregon
Savannah
Gallatin
Trenton
Chillicothe
Bloomington
Linneus
Shelbyville
Huntsville
Palmyra
New London
Bowling Green
Troy
Alton
Vandalia
Danville
Fulton
Warrenton
Hermann
Union
Linn
Hillsboro
Herculaneum
Kaskaskia
Potosi
Steelville
Ste. Genevieve
Farmington
Jackson
Cape Girardeau
Cairo
Charleston
Bloomfield
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Clinton
Harrisonville
Batesville
Osceola
Hermitage
Buffalo
Bolivar
Greenfield
Springfield
Harrisville
Copper Mines
Carthage
Mt. Vernon
Neosho
Baibridge
Van Buren
Forsyth
Cassville
Jefferson City
Columbia
Warrensburg
Georgetown
Versailles
Sparta

St. François, Jefferson, and St. Genevieve, embrace what is called the "mineral tract." The lead mines have been worked from the time of the first settlement of the country, and produce ores of the richest kind, yielding, in some instances, more than 80 per cent. of pure metal. In addition to the above-named substances, there is found in this state zinc, copper, manganese, antimony, calamine, cobalt, ochres, common salt, nitre, plumbago, burr-stone, free-stone, gypsum, and marble.

Cities and Chief Towns.—Jefferson City is the seat of government. St. Louis* is a city. The principal towns are Booneville, Bowling Green,

CITY OF ST. LOUIS.

Columbia, Cape Girardeau, Fayette, Franklin, Fulton, Herculaneum, Independence, Keytesville, Lexington, Liberty, New Madrid, Platte City, St. Charles, St. Genevieve, and Weston.

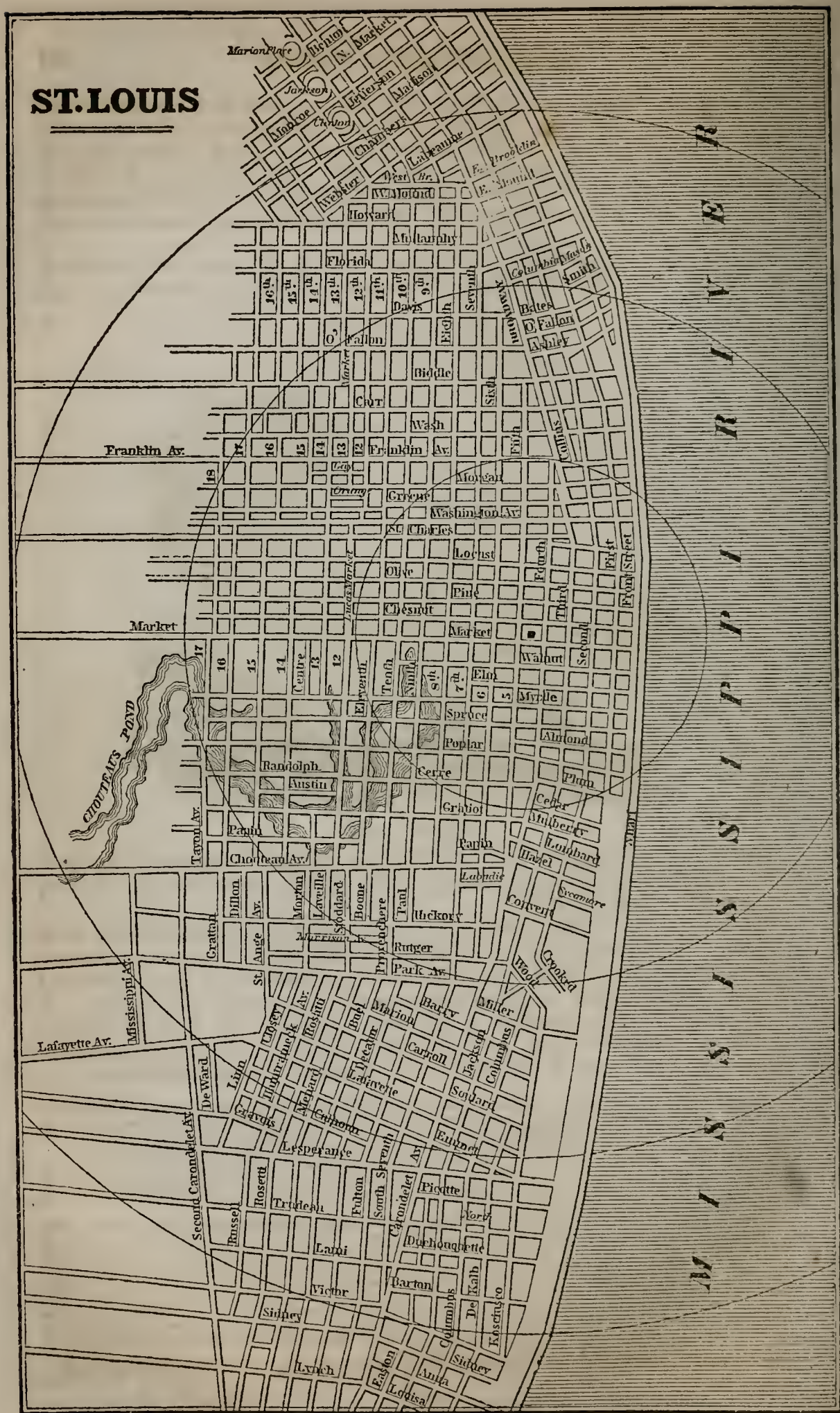
Manufactures.—The manufactures of Missouri are comparatively of small account. The number of establishments in 1850, in which goods were manufactured to the annual amount of $500 worth or upward each, were 3,030, and of these nearly one half were located in the city and county of St. Louis.

Commerce.—The commerce of Missouri consists mostly of its river-trade, its foreign commerce being of very trifling account. The shipping owned within the state (being mostly steamboats) amounts to about 30,000 tons.

* St. Louis is situated on the west bank of Mississippi river, 20 miles below the junction of the Missouri, 180 miles above the Ohio, 1,150 miles from New Orleans, and 856 miles from Washington. It is built upon two elevations, the lower 20 feet, the higher 60 feet above the river. The terrace, as it may be styled, next the water, affords room for several business streets, some of which are lined with rows of spacious and imposing warehouses. Above are many fine sites for residences, and for public buildings, churches, asylums, schools, banks, and various other prominent edifices. The thickly-peopled part of the city extends several miles along the river, and about a mile westward. The whole area is much larger, including 36 square miles or more, and is filling up with unexampled rapidity.

The commercial position and advantages are remarkable, as its growing prosperity conclusively testifies. Few towns on the Mississippi have so favorable a position with respect to that river, while it is the entrepot of a vast trade from the valleys of Ohio and Missouri rivers. It is thus identified in progress with an extensive section of the West, to which it holds an important relation. The surrounding land is fertile, populous, and well cultivated, and of course contributes largely to the maintenance and trade of the city. The harbor is sufficient for steamboats of the largest class, many hundreds of which stop at this port every year. The manufactures of St. Louis are also extensive and varied, embracing articles of different descriptions, to the amount of many hundred thousand dollars. The city is lighted with gas, and supplied with water from the river, elevated into reservoirs by steam engines, and thence distributed by iron pipes. It is the seat of St Louis university, and contains other scientific and literary institutions of different grades.

The population of St. Louis in 1810 was 1,600; in 1820, 4,598; in 1830, 5,852; in 1840, 16,469; in 1850, 77,860.


ST. LOUIS
MISSISSIPPI RIVER
Marion Place
Benton
N. Market
Jackson
Jefferson
Madison
Monroe
Clinton
Chambers
Labeaume
E. Brooklin
E. Mound
West Br.
Webster
W. Mound
Howard
Mullanphy
Florida
Columbia
Mason
Smith
16th
15th
14th
13th
12th
11th
10th
9th
Davis
Eighth
Seventh
Bates
O'Fallon
Ashley
O'Fallon
Market
Biddle
Sixth
Carr
Wash
Franklin Av.
17
16
15
14
13
12
Franklin Av.
Fifth
Collins
18
Morgan
Greene
Washington Av.
St. Charles
Locust
Fourth
First
Front Street
Olive
Lucas Market
Pine
Third
Chesnut
Market
Market
Second
Walnut
17
16
15
14
Centre
13
12
Eleventh
Tenth
Ninth
8th
7th
Elm
6
5
Myrtle
Spruce
Poplar
Almond
CHOUTEAUS POND
Randolph
Austin
Cerre
Plum
Gratiot
Cedar
Mulberry
Tayon Av.
Papin
Papin
Lombard
Hazel
Chouteau Av.
Labadie
Sycamore
Dillon
Av.
Morton
Laveille
Stoddard
Boone
Pratt
Hickory
Convent
Grattan
Ange
Morrison Av.
Rutger
Crookrd
Park Av.
Wood
St.
Mississippi Av.
Barry
Miller
Closey
Av.
Rosetti
Buel
Marion
Lafayette Av.
Decatur
Carroll
Jackson
Columbus
De Ward
Linn
Lafayette
Menard
Soulard
Gravois
Cupoon
Emmet
Lesperance
Second Carondelet Av.
Rosetti
Fulton
South Seventh
Carondelet Av.
Picotte
Russell
Trudeau
North
Lami
Duchouquette
Victor
Barton
De Kalb
Kosciusco
Sidney
Columbus
Sidney
Lynch
Easton
Anna
Louisa

EDUCATION.—There are several collegiate institutions in Missouri: the Masonic college, in Marion county, founded in 1831; University of St. Louis, in 1832; St. Charles college, in 1837; Missouri university, at Columbia, in 1840; St. Vincent's college, at Cape Girardeau, in 1843; and Fayette college, in 1846. Medical schools are attached to the two universities. There are nearly 2,000 common schools and about 100 academies in the state.

POPULATION.—In 1810, 19,833; in 1820, 66,586; in 1830, 140,074; in 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows:—

COUNTIES.	1850.	1840.
Adair	2,342	1,949
Andrew	9,433	new co.
Atchison	1,678	new co.
Audrain	3,506	new co.
Barry	3,467	4,795
Bates	3,669	new co.
Benton	5,015	4,205
Boone	14,979	13,561
Buchanan	12,975	6,237
Butler	1,616	new co.
Caldwell	2,316	1,458
Callaway	13,827	11,765
Camden	2,338	new co.
Cape Girardeau	13,912	9,359
Carroll	5,441	2,428
Cass	6,090	4,693
Cedar	3,361	new co.
Chariton	7,514	4,746
Clarke	5,527	2,846
Clay	10,332	8,282
Clinton	3,786	2,724
Cole	6,696	9,286
Cooper	12,950	10,484
Crawford	6,397	3,561
Dade	4,246	new co.
Dallas	3,648	new co.
Daviess	5,298	2,736
De Kalb	2,075	new co.
Dodge	353	new co.
Dunklin	1,229	new co.
Franklin	11,021	7,515
Gasconade	4,996	5,330
Gentry	4,248	new co.
Greene	13,785	5,372
Grundy	3,006	new co.
Harrison	2,447	new co.
Henry	4,052	4,726
Hickory	2,329	new co.
Holt	3,957	new co.
Howard	13,969	13,108
Jackson	14,000	7,612
Jasper	4,223	new co.
Jefferson	6,928	4,296
Johnson	7,461	4,471
Knox	2,894	new co.
Laclede	2,498	new co.
Lafayette	13,690	6,815
Lawrence	4,859	new co.
Lewis	6,578	6,040
Lincoln	9,421	7,449
Linn	4,058	2,245
Livingston	4,247	4,325
Macon	6,565	6,034
Madison	6,003	3,395
Marion	12,230	9,623
Macdonald	2,236	new co.
Mercer	2,691	new co.
Miller	3,834	2,282
Mississippi	3,123	new co.
Moniteau	6,004	new co.
Monroe	10,541	9,505
Montgomery	5,489	4,371
Morgan	46,50	4,407
New Madrid	5,541	4,554
Newton	4,268	3,790
Nodaway	2,118	new co.
Oregon	1,432	new co.
Osage	6,704	new co.
Ozark	2,294	new co.
Perry	7,215	5,760
Pettis	5,150	2,930
Pike	13,609	10,646
Platte	16,845	8,913
Polk	6,186	8,449
Pulaski	3,998	6,529
Putnam	1,657	new co.
Rolls	6,151	5,670
Randolph	9,439	7,198
Ray	10,373	6,553
Reynolds	1,849	new co.
Ripley	2,830	2,856
Saline	8,843	5,258
Schuyler	3,287	new co.
Scotland	3,782	new co.
Scott	3,182	5,974
Shannon	1,199	new co.
Shelby	4,253	3,056
St. Charles	11,454	7,011
St. Clair	3,556	new co.
Ste. Genevieve	5,313	3,148
St. Francois	4,964	3,211
St. Louis	104,978	35,979
Stoddard	4,277	3,153
Sullivan	2,983	new co.
Taney	4,373	3,264
Texas	2,312	new co.
Warren	5,860	4,253
Washington	8,811	7,213
Wayne	4,518	3,403
Wright	3,387	new co.
Total	682,044	383,702

Number of slaves in 1810, 3,011; in 1820, 10,222; in 1830, 24,990; in 1840, 58,240; in 1850, 87,422

GOVERNMENT.—The governor is elected by the people for four years, but is ineligible for the succeeding four years. A lieutenant-governor is chosen at the same time, and for the same term, who is president of the senate. Every county is entitled to send one representative, but the whole number can never exceed 100, and are elected for two years. The senators are elected every four years, one half retiring every second year; and their number can never be less than 14, nor more than 33, chosen by districts, and apportioned according to the number of free white inhabitants. The elections are held biennially, in August. The legislature meets once in two years, the last Monday in December, at Jefferson City. Every white male citizen, over 21 years of age, who has resided one year in the state, and three months in the county in which he offers his vote, has the right of suffrage. The judges of the various courts are elected by the people for the term of six years. One bank only, with not more than five branches, may be established in the state.

HISTORY.—Father Marquette, a Jesuit missionary, and Jolyet, a citizen of Quebec, visited the territory of the present state of Missouri in 1673, and soon afterward the Canadian trappers and Jesuit missionaries penetrated the country in every direction. The lead mines of Missouri were worked by the French as early as 1720. The first permanent European settlement was made at St. Genevieve, in 1763, by a lead mining company, under the name of "Laclede, Maxam, & Co." St. Louis was founded the next year. In 1800, Spain retroceded all her claims to Louisiana to France, who formally took possession of the country, and sold it to the United States in 1803. In 1805, that portion of Louisiana lying east of the Mississippi, and all of the country bearing that name

west of that river, was erected into a territorial government, under the name of the "Territory of Louisiana." In 1812, a part of the present state of Louisiana was separated from the rest of the territory, and admitted into the Union as an independent state, and the remainder was reorganized under the name of the "Territory of Missouri," which was supposed to contain all the lands west of the Mississippi to the "South sea," except a part of the state of Louisiana. In 1821, a part of this territory was admitted into the Union as the present state of Missouri. On the subject of its admission a long debate ensued in Congress, it having been proposed to prohibit slavery in the new state. It was finally admitted by what is called the Missouri compromise, which tolerated slavery in the state, but prohibited it in the territory north of it. Mottoes of the seal, *Salus populi suprema lex esto:* "The welfare of the people is the first great law." "United we stand, divided we fall."

GOVERNORS OF MISSOURI TERRITORY.

James Wilkinson.....1805	Merriweather Lewis.....1807	William Clark.....1813

GOVERNORS UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

Alexander M'Nair.....1820	Daniel Dunklin.....1832	John C. Edwards.....1844
Frederick Bates.....1824	L. W. Boggs.....1836	Austin A. King.....1848
John Miller.....1828	Thomas Reynolds.....1840	Sterling Price.....1852

IOWA.

Iowa, formerly a portion of the Louisiana territory, is situated between 40° 30′ and 43° 30′ north latitude, and 90° 20′ and 96° 50′ west longitude from Greenwich, and is bounded north by Minnesota, east by Mississippi river, which separates it from Wisconsin and Illinois, south by Missouri, and west by the Indian territory. Its superficial area is 50,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The general surface of this state is moderately undulating, without mountains or high hills, except in the northern part, where the hills are of considerable height. Along the margins of the rivers there are frequent ranges of bluffs, which vary in height from 40 to 130 feet. In other instances, the streams are skirted by rich "bottoms," covered with trees. A large proportion of the territory consists of prairies, some of which have a level, others a rolling surface. The soil on the bottoms, as well as on the prairies, is generally good, the former consisting of a deep rich black mould, and the latter of a sandy loam, sometimes intermingled with gravel, or red clay.

Rivers and Lakes.—The principal rivers are, the Mississippi, Des Moines, Iowa, Keosauque, Little Iowa, Turkey, Skunk, Red, Cedar, Maquekota, and Wabsipinecon. At the north part of the state there are numerous small lakes.

Climate.—The climate is pleasant, and generally healthy, except near the borders of stagnant waters, or sluggish streams, where, during the summer, bilious complaints, fevers, and agues, usually prevail. Snow rarely falls to exceed eight or ten inches in depth; and the Mississippi, at Prairie du Chien, is not frozen sufficiently strong to be crossed more than five or six weeks in the year. The summers are warm, but not oppressively so, and are refreshed by frequent showers.

City and Chief Towns.—Iowa City is the seat of government. The principal towns are, Andrew, Boonville, Burlington, Council Bluff, Delhi, Dubuque, De Witt, Edinburgh, Fairfield, Fort des Moines, Keokuk, Keosauque,

MINNESOTA
WISCONSIN
ILLINOIS
MISSOURI
INDIANA TERRITORY
Mississippi River
Missouri River
Upper Iowa R.
Wisconsin R.
Iowa R.
Red Cedar R.
Des Moines R.
Skunk R.
Maquoketa R.
Turkey R.
Sioux R.
Raccoon R.
Boyer R.
Nishnabotna R.
Nodaway R.
Platte River
Little Platte R.
Grand R.
Thompson's R.
Rock R.
Spirit L.
L. Albert Lea
L. Boone
L. Sioux R.
Ft. Atkinson
Mc. Gregor
West Union
Guttenburg
Lancaster
Mineral Point
Monroe
Galena
Independence
Du Buque
Delhi
Bellevue
Anamosa
Andrew
Vinton
Marion
Tipton
Davenport
Rock Island
Muscatine
Muscatine City
Sigourney
Washington
Iowa City
Marengo
Montezuma
Newton
Et Des Moines
Adell
Peneuach
Winterset
Knoxville
Oskaloosa
Ottumwa
Eddyville
Albia
Centreville
Bloomfield
New Buda
Mt. Pleasant
Fairfield
Burlington
Keosauque
Ft. Lee
Madison
Nauvoo
Monrose
Millersburg
Tama
Iowa
Polk
Dallas
Guthrie
Adair
Cass
Adams
Union
Clarke
Lucas
Monroe
Wapello
Jefferson
Henry
Des Moines
Louisa
Muscatine
Scott
Clinton
Jackson
Jones
Linn
Benton
Cedar
Johnson
Washington
Keokuk
Mahaska
Marion
Warren
Madison
Davis
Appanoose
Wayne
Decatur
Ringgold
Taylor
Page
Fremont
Mills
Montgomery
Pottawatomie
Shelby
Audubon
Harrison
Crawford
Carroll
Greene
Boone
Story
Marshall
Hardin
Grundy
Black Hawk
Buchanan
Delaware
Dubuque
Jasper
Poweshiek
Clayton
Fayette
Bremer
Butler
Franklin
Wright
Humboldt
Kossuth
Hancock
Cerro Gordo
Floyd
Chickasaw
Winneshiek
Allamakee
Howard
Mitchell
Worth
Winnebago
Emmet
Dickinson
Osceola
Buncombe
Sioux
O'Brien
Clay
Palo Alto
Plymouth
Cherro Kee
Buena Vista
Pocahontas
Wahkaw
Ida
Sac
Fox
Yell
Risley
Manona
IOWA
Scale of Miles
10 20 30 40 50 60

Knoxville, Madison, Marion, Marengo, Mount Pleasant, Muscatine, Newton, Ottumwa, Oskaloosa, Prairie la Porte, Tipton, Trenton, and Washington.

Productive Resources.—The staple products of this state are, horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, butter, cheese, wax, wool, hay, hemp, flax, skins, furs, sugar, tobacco, wheat, barley, rye, oats, buckwheat, potatoes, and Indian corn. Among the mineral resources are found lead, iron, copper, zinc, and coal; but lead is the most abundant, and the mines are extensively worked in the vicinity of Dubuque.

Manufactures.—The manufacturing and mechanic arts have as yet but a slight foothold in Iowa; but with its abundant water power, and other resources, it undoubtedly will not long remain as now almost entirely an agricultural state.

Commerce.—From its position, lying upon the Mississippi river, with numerous navigable streams traversing its interior, Iowa possesses commercial advantages equal to those of any other western state. It contributes largely to the valuable cargoes that are floated down the Mississippi to New Orleans.

Education.—There are two collegiate institutions in this state; the Iowa university, at Iowa City, and the Franklin college, at Franklin. The constitution makes it imperative that a school shall be established in each district. All lands granted by Congress, and other specified avails, constitute a fund to be applied to education. A special fund is also provided for the support of the state university.

Population.—In 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows:—

Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.
Allamakee	777	new co.	Fremont	1,244	new co.	Monroe	2,884	new co.
Appanoose	3,131	new co.	Henry	8,707	3,772	Muscatine	5,731	1,942
Benton	672	new co.	Iowa	822	new co.	Page	551	new co.
Black Hawk	135	new co.	Jackson	7,210	1,411	Polk	4,515	new co.
Boone	735	new co.	Jasper	1,280	new co.	Pottawatomie	7,828	new co.
Buchanan	517	new co.	Jefferson	9,904	2,773	Poweshiek	615	new co.
Cedar	3 941	1,253	Johnson	4,472	1,491	Scott	5,986	2,140
Clark	79	new co.	Jones	3,007	471	Tama	8	new co.
Clayton	3,873	1,101	Keokuk	4,822	new co.	Taylor	204	new co.
Clinton	2,822	821	Lee	18,860	6,093	Van Buren	12,270	6,146
Dallas	854	new co.	Linn	5,444	1,373	Wapello	8,471	new co.
Davis	7,264	new co.	Louisa	4,939	1,927	Warren	961	new co.
Decatur	965	new co.	Lucas	471	new co.	Washington	4,957	1,594
Delaware	1,759	168	Madison	1,179	new co.	Wayne	340	new co.
Des Moines	12,987	5,575	Mahaska	5,989	new co.	Winneshiek	546	new co.
Dubuque	10,841	3,059	Marion	5,482	new co.			
Fayette	825	new co.	Marshall	338	new co.	Total	192,214	43,111

Government.—The legislative power is vested in a senate, consisting of not more than one half, nor less than one third, of the number of representatives, and who are chosen for four years, one half biennially; and in a house of representatives, not less than thirty-nine, nor more than seventy-two in number, chosen for two years. The executive power is vested in a governor, chosen for four years. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, consisting of a chief justice and two associates, elected by the legislature for six years; in district courts, the judges of which are elected by the people for five years; and in justices of the peace. Every white male citizen, twenty-one years old (idiots, insane, or infamous persons, excepted), having resided in the state six months, and in the county twenty days, has the right of suffrage. State elections first Monday in August; the legislature meets biennially, first Monday in December.

History.—Iowa embraces a portion of the ancient territory of Upper Louisiana, the eastern border of which was explored by Marquette and Jolyet, in 1673. It remained under the jurisdiction of France until 1763, when it was ceded to Spain. In 1800 it was retroceded to France, who formally took possession of the country, and sold the whole to the United States in 1803. Subsequently to this, Iowa constituted a part of the Territory of Louisiana, and afterward of that of Missouri. Until as late as the year 1832, the whole of this territory north of Missouri, which was admitted into the Union as a state in 1821, was in undisputed possession of the Indians. By a treaty made in 1830,

the Sacs and Foxes, then the principal tribes, had ceded to the United States the last of their lands east of the Mississippi. In consequence of not leaving the territory, in compliance with the treaty, arose the "Black Hawk war," which resulted in the total defeat of the Indians at the battle of Bad Ax, in Wisconsin, in 1832. In the autumn of that year a belt of country along the west side of the Mississippi, extending northward from Missouri for nearly 300 miles, and 50 miles in width, commonly known as the "Black Hawk purchase," was ceded by the Indians to the United States. In 1836–'37 further purchases were made, and in 1838 Iowa was erected into a territory. By another treaty in 1842, a tract of some 15,000,000 acres more were purchased of the Sacs and Foxes for $1,000,000. From that time the Indian title became extinct in the whole country lying within the limits of this state, which was admitted into the Union in 1846. This state is being rapidly settled, and the tide of emigration now flowing westward will, at no distant day, make this one of the most populous states in the Union.

GOVERNORS OF IOWA TERRITORY.

Robert Lucas.....1838 John Chambers.....1841 James Clarke.....1846

UNDER THE STATE GOVERNMENT.

Ansell Briggs.....1846 Stephen H. Hempsted.....1850

WISCONSIN.

The state of Wisconsin is situated between 42° 30′ and 47° north latitude, and 87° and 92° 40′ west longitude from Greenwich; and is bounded north by Lake Superior, northeast by the peninsula of Michigan, from which it is separated in part by Menomonee river, east by Lake Michigan, south by Illinois, and west by Iowa and Minnesota, from which it is separated in part by the Mississippi river. Its superficial area is 53,924 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The face of the country is rather undulating, than either hilly or flat, though both extremes exist. The highest lands in the state are those forming the dividing ridge between the Mississippi and Lake Superior. From this ridge, toward the south and southwest, the descent is gradual, until the inclination is interrupted by another ridge, in the region of the Wisconsin and Neenah rivers, which extends across the state. From the latter ridge proceeds another gentle inclined plain, down which flow the waters of Rock river and its branches into the Illinois. Along the Mississippi, Wisconsin, and Helena rivers, there are numerous hills and bluffs, varying from 300 to 1,000 feet in height above the surface of these streams. The country bordering directly on Superior has a very precipitous descent toward the lake. From the entrance of Green bay there is another ridge of broken land, running in a southwesterly direction, more or less uninterrupted, until it passes the confines of the state. The soil is generally of great fertility, and productive of all northern crops, in most situations that are not marshy, or too wet. In Dane county, it is stated that the soil is composed, for the most part, of the black deposite of decayed vegetation, which for countless ages has flourished in wild luxuriance, and rotted upon the surface; of loam, and in a few localities, of clay mixed with sand. The deposite of vegetable mould has uniformly several inches of thickness on the tops and sides of hills; in the valleys it is frequently a number of feet. A soil thus created, of impalpable pow-

WISCONSIN
10 30 50 70 Miles
L. SUPERIOR
I. Royal
Point Kewenaw
Ft. Wilkins
Kewenaw Bay
Fond du Lac
St. Louis R.
Apostles Islands
La Pointe
Poplar R.
Burnwood R.
Maskeg R.
Montreal R.
Ontonagon R.
Kewenaw R.
Huron R.
Up. St. Croix L.
LA POINTE
MICHIGAN
Escanaba R.
Menomonee R.
Court Oreilles L.
St. Croix R.
Red Cedar R.
Manidowish R.
CHIPPEWA
MARATHON
Wisconsin R.
Pine R.
OCONTO
Peshtigo R.
South Br.
Oconto R.
Dacotah
Lake St. Croix
L. St. Croix P.O.
Chippewa R.
Big Bull Falls
Pine Region
Shawono L.
GREEN BAY
DOOR
L. Pepin
Sappah or Black R.
LA CROSSE
Prairie la Crosse R.
PORTAGE
Conants
WAUPACA
Wolf R.
Green Bay
BROWN
OUTAGAMIE
Fox R.
Bridgeport
Grignons Mills
Bloomers
Whitneys Mills
ADAMS
WAUSHARA
WINNEBAGO
CALUMET
MANITOWOC
Calumet
Manitowoc
Pequot
The Dells
Oshkosh
FOND DU LAC
Fond du Lac
SHEBOYGAN
Sheboygan
MARQUETTE
Bad Axe R.
BAD AXE
Ft. Winnebago
Wausaara
RICHLAND
SAUK
Dekorra
COLUMBIA
C.H.
DODGE
Hustis
WASHINGTON
Washington
Up. Iowa R.
Turkey R.
CRAWFORD
Prairie du Chien
C.H.
Prairie du Sac
4th Lake
DANE
MADISON
JEFFERSON
WAUKESHA
MILWAUKEE
Milwaukee
Wisconsin R.
IOWA
Ft. Crawford
Lancaster
Dodgeville
The 4 Lakes
Jefferson
Prairie V.
Prairie la Pointe
GRANT
Mineral Pt.
Ft. Atkinson
Cassville
Union
Janesville
Troy
WALWORTH
RACINE
Racine
Potosi
Elk Grove
LAFAYETTE
GREEN
ROCK
Elkhorn
KENOSHA
Jamestown
Monroe
Beloit
Walworth
Satem
Dubuque
Galena
Red Cedar R.
Bellevue
Rockford
IOWA
Charleston
Elgin
Geneva
Chicago
DeWitt
Iowa R.
Rock R.
IOWA CITY
Mississippi Riv.
ILLINOIS
Bloomington
Rock Island
Skunk R.
Illinois Riv.
Ottawa
L. MICHIGAN
15 14 13 12 11
48 47 46 45 44 43 42
Lon West from Washington

der, formed of the elements of organic matter—"the dust of death"—we need scarcely remark, is adapted to the highest and most profitable purposes of agriculture; yielding crop after crop, in rank abundance, without any artificial manuring.

Rivers, Lakes, and Bays.—The chief rivers are, the Mississippi, Wisconsin, Rock, St. Louis, Montreal, Baraboo, Wolf, Fox or Neenah, Black, Chippewa or Ojibwa, Catfish, and the Menomonee. The principal lakes, besides Superior and Michigan, are, Winnebago, Four Lakes, Wingra, Koshkonong, Packawa, Buffalo, Green, Little Green, Pewaugone, Great and Little Butte-des-Morts, Maquanago, Wissaua, Kanchee, La Belle, Nagowicka, Oconomewoc, Nashotah (Twin Lakes), Como, Delavan, Geneva, Deer, Sarah, Swan, Mud, Katakittekon, or Lac Vieux Desert. The chief bays are the Chegowawegon and Fond du Lac, in Lake Superior, and a part of Green bay in Lake Michigan.

Islands.—These are, Bartlett's, Apostles', Stocton's, and Madeline, in Lake Superior, and Doty's island, in Fox river.

Climate.—The climate of this state, notwithstanding its high northern latitude, is more favorable than that of corresponding parallels in New England and New York. Yet its winters are severe and long, with continued deep snows for several months, and the lakes and streams are strongly locked up in ice. The harbor of Milwaukie is usually closed from the middle to the end of November, and is opened in the spring, sometimes as early as the first week in March, while in other seasons it is closed as late as the middle of April. During the growing season, however, vegetation springs up as if by magic, and puts forward with astonishing rapidity and luxuriance. Spring and autumn are usually mild, and are less liable to destructive frosts than the more easterly states.

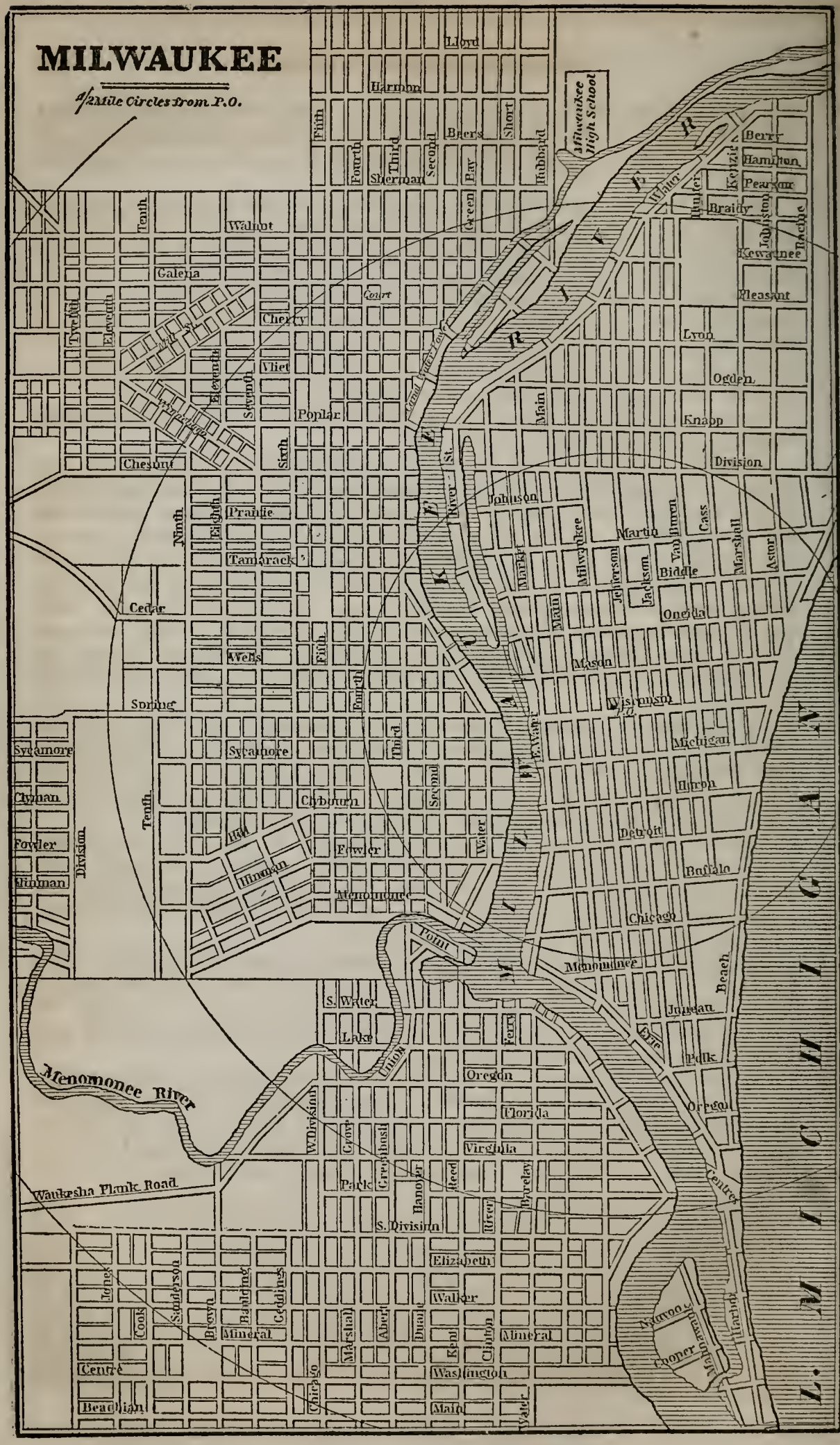
Chief Towns—Madison is the seat of government. The other populous towns are, Beloit, Green Bay, Dodgeville, Elkhorn, Fond du Lac, Manitouwoc, Fort Winnebago, Mineral Point, Prairie du Chien, Jefferson, Jamesville, Lancaster, Milwaukee,* Marquette, Manchester, Monroe, Oshkosh, Potosi, Platteville, Racine, Sheboygan, Tacheda, Washington, and Waukesha.

Productive Resources.—The chief products of this state are, horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, butter, cheese, wax, sugar, wool, hemp, flax, wheat, rye, barley, buckwheat, oats, potatoes, and Indian corn. Of the mineral wealth, lead, copper, and iron, are found in considerable abundance, but have not, as yet, been extensively wrought.

Manufactures.—This state is yet too young in years to have made much progress in manufactures. More than nine tenths of the people are engaged in agriculture, and a portion of the remaining tenth are engaged in mining. In 1850, there were in the state 1273 manufacturing establishments, which produced $500 and upward each annually.

Railroads and Canals.—There are several railroads being constructed, or are already in operation, in Wisconsin. Among them are, one from Milwaukee to Galena, 70 miles long, forming a junction with the Chicago and Galena Union railroad; and the Rock River road, extending from Chicago, Illinois, to Fond du Lac, in this state. Plank roads are also constructed here to a consid-

* Milwaukee, the chief city of Wisconsin, and next to Chicago, the largest on Lake Michigan, is finely located for commerce on both sides of Milwaukee river, at its entrance into the lake, 90 miles north of Chicago. 90 miles east of Madison, and 805 miles from Washington. It is the market of a large part of the productions of the state. Steamboats and other vessels navigating Lake Michigan touch here on their way to and from Detroit, and points on Lake Erie, and the St. Lawrence, Erie, and Welland canals. The business part of the city lies almost on a level with the lake, but a hundred yards back the ground rises rapidly to the north, presenting a fine view of the city and lake. The heights are fast improving, by the erection of handsome dwellings. The surrounding region is rich, and rapidly increasing in an industrious and enterprising population, of which Milwaukee is the nucleus, and the centre of trade. The rich clay beds along the lake afford abundant material for brick, of an excellent quality, of a bright straw color, large quantities of which are now exported. They are also used for the majority of the buildings, some of which, in large and uniform rows of dwellings or stores, present a beautiful and splendid effect. Here are churches, a jail, courthouse, and other prominent edifices. The Milwaukee and Mississippi railroad is completed to Palmyra, 43 miles westward. The population of Milwaukee in 1840 was 1,700; in 1850, 20,061.


MILWAUKEE
1/2 Mile Circles from P.O.
Lloyd
Harmon
Milwaukee High School
Fifth
Fourth
Third
Second
Beers
Short
Hubbard
Sherman
Green Bay
Berry
Hamilton
Pearson
Braidy
Johnston
Racine
Kewaunee
Pleasant
Lyon
Ogden
Knapp
Division
Walnut
Tenth
Galena
Court
Cherry
Vliet
Poplar
Sixth
Chestnut
Prairie
Tamarack
Cedar
Wells
Spring
Sycamore
Clyman
Fowler
Hinman
Division
Tenth
Ninth
Eighth
Seventh
Eleventh
Twelfth
Mill St.
Canal Water Power
Main
River St.
Johnson
Martin
Van Buren
Cass
Marshall
Astor
Biddle
Oneida
Mason
Wisconsin
Michigan
Huron
Detroit
Buffalo
Chicago
Menomonee
Beach
Juneau
Erie
Polk
Oregon
Centre
Harbor
Mannawauk
Cooper
Nauvoo
Clinton
Kent
Duane
Abert
Marshall
Mineral
Washington
Main
Water
Chicago
Beachian
Centre
Jones
Cook
Sanderson
Brown
Bauldinge
Geddings
Mineral
Waukesha Plank Road
Menomonee River
Point
Union
Ferry
Oregon
Florida
Virginia
Park
Greenbush
Hanover
Reed
Barclay
River
S. Division
Elizabeth
Walker
Water
Fowler
Hinman
Hill
Clybourn
Sycamore
Fifth
Fourth
Third
Second
Water
E. Water
Market
Milwaukee
Jefferson
Jackson
Main
Water
Kenzie
Hunter
Water
MILWAUKEE RIVER
L. MICHIGAN

erable extent, the abundance of lumber, and level surface of the country, offering ready facilities for their construction. The Portage canal, connecting the Fox and Wisconsin rivers, and through them the great lakes with the Mississippi river, is an important internal improvement.

Commerce.—Lying, as this state does, with two of the great inland seas for its northern and eastern boundaries, and the Mississippi upon its western border, Wisconsin possesses commercial facilities not exceeded by that of any other of the western states.

Education.—The principal educational institutions of the higher class in this state are, the Wisconsin university, at Madison, founded in 1849, and the Beloit college, founded in 1847. There is also a theological seminary (Roman catholic) at Milwaukee. The educational resources of the state are extensive. The school fund consists of the proceeds of about 2,000,000 of acres of lands, five per cent. of the proceeds of all United States lands in the state, and moneys arising from several minor sources.

Population.—In 1840 and 1850, by counties, as follows:—

Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.	Counties.	1850.	1840.
Adams	187	new co.	Iowa	9,530	3,978	Richland	903	new co.
Brown	6,212	2,107	Jefferson	15,317	914	Rock	20,708	1,701
Calumet	1,743	275	Kenosha	10,732	new co.	Sauk	4,371	102
Chippewa	614	new co.	Lafayette	11,541	new co.	Sheboygan	8,378	133
Columbia	9,565	new co.	La Pointe	489	new co.	St. Croix	624	801
Crawford	2,498	1,502	Marquette	8,642	18	Walworth	17,861	2,611
Dane	16,641	3,114	Marathon	508	new co.	Washington	19,484	343
Dodge	19,138	67	Milwaukee	31,077	5,605	Waukesha	19,174	new co.
Fond du Lac	14,468	139	Manitouwoc	3,702	235	Winnebago	10,125	135
Grant	16,170	3,926	Portage	1,250	1,623			
Greene	8,563	933	Racine	14,973	3,475	Total	305,191	30,945

Government.—The legislative power is vested in an assembly, of not fewer than 54, nor more than 100 members, chosen annually; and in a senate, numbering not more than a third, nor less than one half the members of assembly, chosen for two years, one half each year. The executive power is vested in a governor and lieutenant-governor, who are chosen by a plurality vote for two years. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, circuit courts, probate courts, the judges of which are all chosen by the people; supreme and circuit judges for six years, and probate judges and justices of the peace for two years. State election the Tuesday succeeding the first Monday in November. All white male citizens of the United States, or white foreigners, who have declared their intentions to become citizens, who have resided in the state one year, have the right of suffrage.

History.—The first European settlement made within the limits of the present state of Wisconsin, was by the French missionary, Claude Allouez, and others, at La Pointe, on Madeline island, in the western end of Lake Superior, in 1665. This state embraces a part of the territory of Upper Louisiana, as claimed by the French, prior to 1763, when it was ceded to England, together with all their territory east of the Mississippi, under whose jurisdiction it remained until the treaty of Grenville, in 1795. The year following it was ceded to the United States, and in 1800, it was annexed to the "Territory Northwest of the River Ohio." In 1802, Ohio was detached, and formed into an independent state; and in 1805, a territorial government was established in Michigan, under whose jurisdiction for civil purposes Wisconsin remained until 1836, when it was erected into a distinct territory. In 1847, Wisconsin, with its present boundaries, was formally admitted into the Union as a sovereign state. Motto of the seal, *Civilitas successit Barbarum:* "Civilization has succeeded Barbarism.

GOVERNORS OF WISCONSIN TERRITORY.

Henry Dodge.....1836 James D. Doty.....1840 N. P. Tallmadge.....1844 Henry Dodge.....1845

GOVERNORS OF THE STATE.

Nelson Dewey.....1847 Leonard J. Farwell..1851

CALIFORNIA.

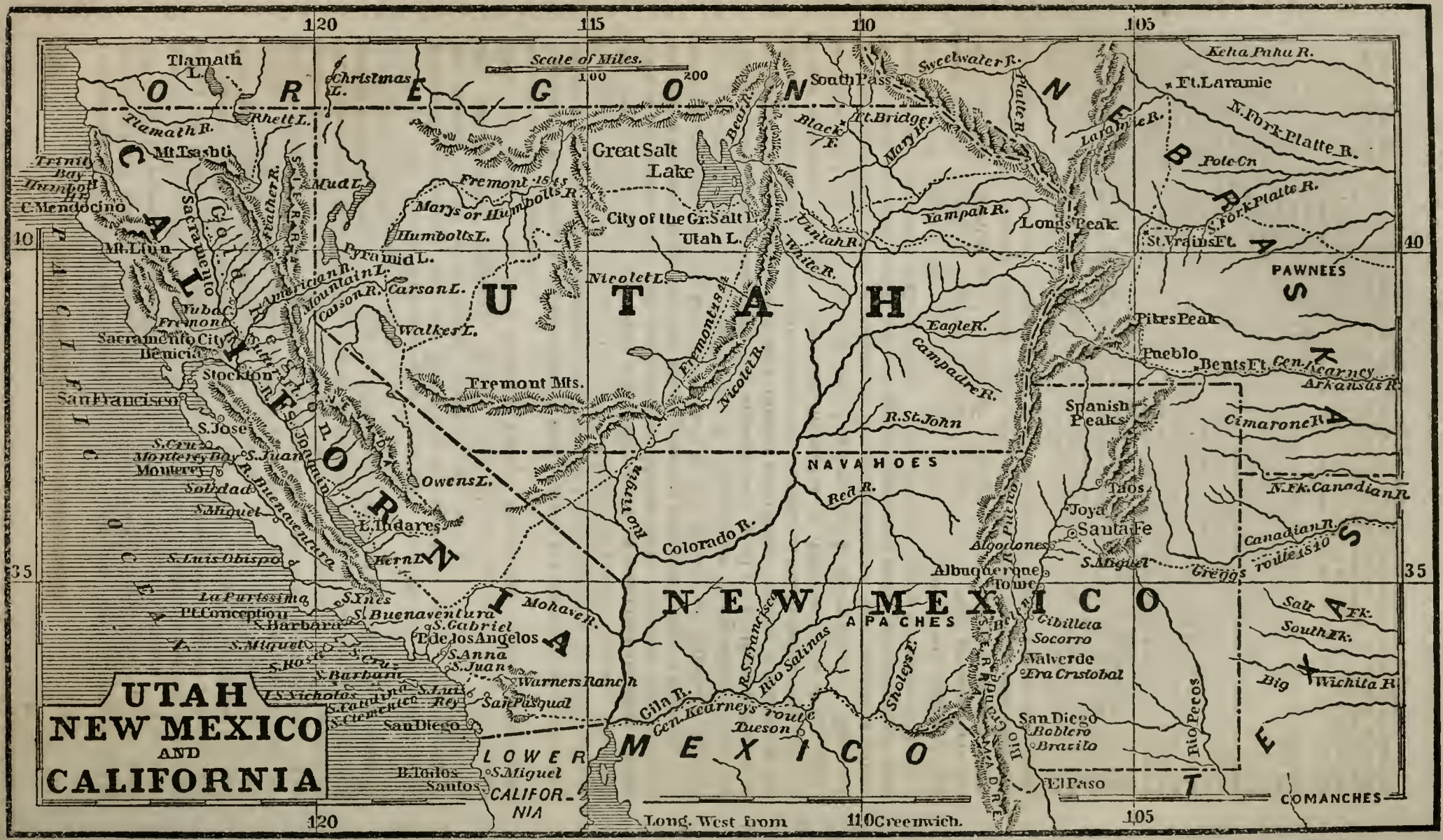
The state of California lies between 42° and 32° 40′ north latitude, and 120° and 124° 30′ longitude west from Greenwich; and is bounded north by Oregon, east by Utah and New Mexico, from which it is separated in part by Rio Colorado, south by Sonora and Lower California, in Mexico, and west by the Pacific. Its superficial area is 190,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The general features of this state are mountainous and hilly, with the exception of the great valley of the Sacramento and San Joaquin, which covers an area 500 miles in length, and 50 or 60 miles in width. Here the surface is level, and the soil fertile along the borders of the streams; but further back it is either arid and unproductive, or consists of extensive, low, alluvial marshes (*tulares*), thickly covered with rushes, which are traversed by numerous navigable creeks, or streams. This valley is bounded on the east by the Sierra Nevada, the most prominent range in the state, which run nearly parallel with the coast, at a distance of 100 to 200 miles. On the west of this valley lies another range of lesser mountains called the Coast range, some of them rising to the height of 3,000 feet, which also run parallel with the coast, at a distance of 30 to 60 miles. Among these hills are numerous valleys, some of which are highly fertile, and are surrounded by scenery of great beauty and picturesque effect. The soil which appears to be best adapted to the purposes of tillage, is that embraced within the abovenamed valleys, and those adjacent to Eel river, Humboldt harbor, and San Francisco bay.

Mountains.—The most prominent range of mountains in this state is the Sierra Nevada, along the western slope of which lie the far-famed gold regions, extending over an area 400 or 500 miles in length, and 30 to 60 miles in breadth. This slope is intersected by numerous gorges, or ravines, which afford egress to the tributaries of the Sacramento and San Joaquin, and presents to the landscape an aspect extremely picturesque, ragged, and rough. In the coast range the most prominent are, Carnero, Diablo, and Santa Cruz mountains.

Rivers, Bays, Harbors, and Lakes.—The principal streams are, the Sacramento, San Joaquin, Klamath, Trinity, Feather, Yuba, Eel, Nappa, Calaveras, Salinos, Guadalupe, Tuolumne, Moquelumne, Pajaro, Merced, Mariposa, Stanislaus, Fall, and American rivers. The bays worthy of note are, San Francisco, San Pablo, and the Suisun, all entered through the Golden-Gate, which together form a harbor sufficient for the collected fleets of the whole world. They afford good anchorage, and are completely land-locked, and consequently are safe at all seasons. Humboldt and San Diego harbors, and Trinidad bay, are well protected from the ocean winds, and afford safe anchorage. The harbor of Monterey is good, but is subject to the swell of the Pacific at all times. This country has some lakes, the most noted of which are, the Tulares, Owen's, Clear, and Rhett.

Climate.—The climate of California, with the exception of that in the great valley of Sacramento, and San Joaquin, from June to October, may be regarded as salubrious. The dry season, in which little or no rain falls, lasts generally from April to November. The rainy months occur from November to May, during which period it is estimated that nearly one third of the days are stormy. In the region near the coast, snow rarely falls to remain in the valleys, but occasionally caps the mountains and larger hills; but further inland it is more frequent, and the Sierra Nevada is often capped with snow till snow falls again.


UTAH
NEW MEXICO
AND
CALIFORNIA
Scale of Miles.
100
200
OREGON
CALIFORNIA
UTAH
NEW MEXICO
NEBRASKA
TEXAS
MEXICO
LOWER CALIFORNIA
PACIFIC OCEAN
Tlamath L.
Christmas L.
Rhett L.
Tlamath R.
Mt. Tsashti
Trinity Bay
Humboldt H.
C. Mendocino
Mt. Linn
Sacramento
Yuba C.
Fremont
Sacramento City
Benicia
Stockton
San Francisco
S. Jose
S. Cruz
Monterey Bay
S. Juan
Monterey
Soledad
S. Miguel
S. Luis Obispo
La Purissima
Pt. Conception
S. Barbara
S. Miguel
S. Rosa
S. Cruz
S. Barbara
S. Nicholas
S. Catalina
S. Clementina
S. Luis Rey
San Diego
B. Todos Santos
S. Miguel
S. Ynes
S. Buenaventura
S. Gabriel
P. de los Angelos
S. Anna
S. Juan
Warners Ranch
San Pasqual
Mud L.
Fremont 1845
Marys or Humbolts R.
Humbolts L.
Pyramid L.
American R.
Mountain L.
Carson R.
Carson L.
Walker L.
Fremont Mts.
Owens L.
L. Indares
Kern L.
Mohave R.
Great Salt Lake
City of the Gr. Salt L.
Utah L.
Nicolet L.
Fremont 1844
Nicolet R.
Bear R.
Black F.
Ft. Bridger
Mary R.
South Pass
Sweetwater R.
Platte R.
Laramie R.
Keha Paha R.
Ft. Laramie
N. Fork Platte R.
Pole Cr.
S. Fork Platte R.
Yampah R.
Uintah R.
White R.
Longs Peak
St. Vrains Ft.
PAWNEES
Eagle R.
Campadre R.
R. St. John
Pikes Peak
Pueblo
Bents Ft.
Gen. Kearney
Arkansas R.
Spanish Peaks
Cimarone R.
NAVAHOES
Red R.
Rio Virgin
Colorado R.
Taos
Joya
Santa Fe
Algodones
S. Miguel
Albuquerque
Tome
N. Fk. Canadian R.
Canadian R.
Greggs route 1840
Salt Fk.
South Fk.
Big Wichita R.
APACHES
Gibilleta
Socorro
Valverde
Era Cristobal
Rio Salinas
R. S. Francisco
Sholeys F.
Gila R.
Gen. Kearneys route
Tueson
San Diego
Boblero
Brazilo
El Paso
Rio Pecos
COMANCHES
Long. West from Greenwich.
120
115
110
105
40
35

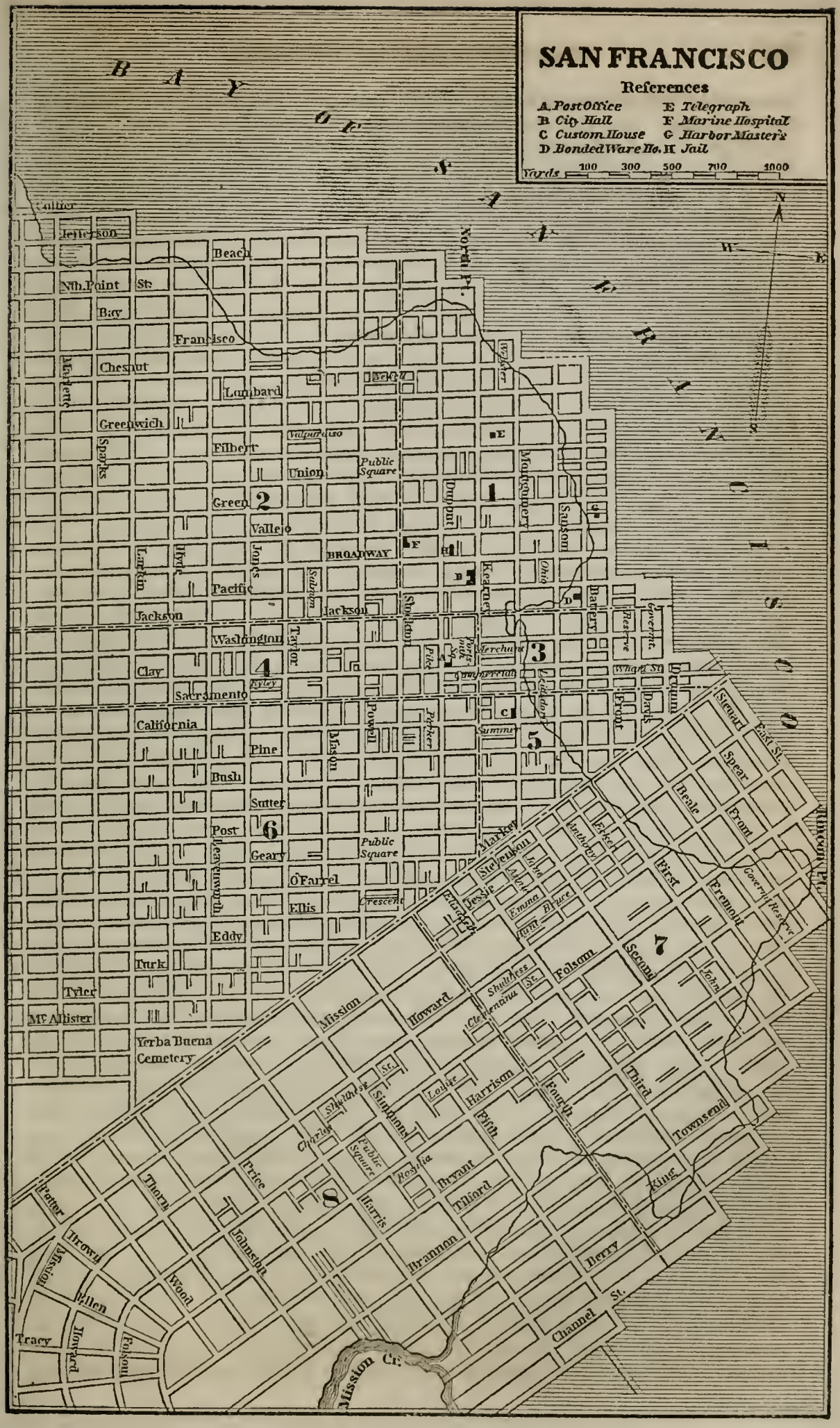
The annual inundations of the valley of Sacramento and San Joaquin occur in the winter and spring, and the streams are frequently at great height in April and May, in consequence of the melting of the mountain snows. The temperature of the coast, particularly in the northwestern part of the state, is mild during the year; but the climate of the coast at the south is much warmer, and in summer it often is exceedingly hot. A few miles from the coast the breezes from the ocean become tempered to mildness, and the climate is pleasant and healthy. Still further inland, beyond the reach of the ocean breeze, particularly in the great valley, the summer temperature is often intensely hot. The nights, however, are usually cool. The winter temperature in the valley of Sacramento and San Joaquin, and of the coast, is usually remarkably mild, ice seldom forming over an eighth of an inch thick, and the morning frosts commonly disappear under the midday sun.

Cities and Chief Towns.—San Francisco, Sacramento City, Stockton, Marysville, Monterey, and San Diego. are the principal cities; and San José (the former capital of the state), Benicia, Nevada, Grass Valley or Centreville, Downieville, Culloma, Sonora, and Mariposa, together with many others, are populous and busy places. Vallejo, the present capital of the state, is as yet a city on paper.

Productive Resources.—Although California is not generally adapted to the purposes of profitable agriculture, yet there is land enough of the finest quality to supply a large population with their ordinary vegetable wants. The valleys are exceedingly fertile, and will produce all of our common grain crops, without irrigation, with the exception of Indian corn. Most of the ordinary vegetables require irrigation, and when properly cultivated, their yield and size are truly enormous. The lands, however, in the vicinity of Humboldt harbor, are represeuted to be highly fertile, and in consequence of occasional showers, which occur in the course of the dry season, they need no artificial watering to produce the finest crops. The rich alluvial soil of the Tulares, if reclaimed by dikes, so as to afford the requisite inundation, doubtless would prove well adapted to the cultivation of rice. The vine flourishes in different parts of the state, and wine has long been made at Los Angelos, and in other places. Many of the recent settlers have commenced the cultivation of our northern fruits. In the southern counties the orange, castor-bean, and some other tropical productions, are cultivated with success. This country seems by nature to be peculiarly well adapted for grazing. The valleys, in spring and summer, are covered with luxuriant vegetation, consisting of various wild grasses, and the hills generally furnish good pasturage during a large portion of the year. The cattle of the country, though small, afford excellent flesh, and were formerly slaughtered in immense numbers for their tallow and hides, being the chief

* San Francisco, the "Empire city" of the Pacific, stands on a narrow neck of land between the bay of San Francisco and the ocean, fronting eastward on the bay, and having the ocean five miles on the west. The bay is safe and commodious, being capable of holding the combined navies of the world. It extends southward some fifty miles, parallel with the sea, from which it is separated by a narrow strip of land, varying from five to twenty miles in width. The city of San Francisco is on the extreme point of this promontory. Its site is handsome and commanding, being on an inclined plane half a mile in extent from the water's edge to the hills in the rear. Two points of land—Clark's point on the north, and Rincon point on the south—one mile apart, project into the bay, forming a crescent between them, which is the water-front of the city, and which has already been filled in and covered with buildings to the extent of half a mile. Those points, and the lofty hills north and west, upon which the city is rapidly climbing, afford a most extensive and picturesque view of the surrounding country. For growing importance, commercial advantages, and the enterprise of its citizens, San Francisco deserves the rank of one of the great cities of the Union. Although it has been repeatedly destroyed by fire, it has each time risen, phœnix-like, from its own ashes, with new beauty and with greater splendor than before. It contains a large number of elegant brick fire-proof stores and banking-houses, and the streets are paved with heavy timber and plank, which will soon give place to more durable material. There are several daily lines of steamers to Sacramento, Marysville, Stockton, San Joaquin city, and other points on the rivers, while ocean steamers ply from San Francisco to Panama and San Juan del Sur the port of Nicaragua. The population in 1847 was 375; in 1852, 34,876.

† Sacramento City, 125 miles from San Francisco, on the east bank of Sacramento river, is the second city in California. It is the principal depot for the greater part of the northern mining district, and the highest point to which steamers and other vessels can ascend at low water. A good and substantial levee has been constructed around the city, to protect it from the overflow of the river, during the annual and occasional freshets. Sacramento is rapidly increasing, and must become a large commercial town. A considerable portion of the city was destroyed by fire in 1852. The population, in 1852, was estimated at 10,000.


SAN FRANCISCO
References
A Post Office
B City Hall
C Custom House
D Bonded Ware Ho.
E Telegraph
F Marine Hospital
G Harbor Master's
H Jail
Yards 100 300 500 700 1000
BAY OF SAN FRANCISCO
North B.
Clifford
Jefferson
Beach
Nth. Point St.
Bay
Francisco
Chestnut
Lombard
Greenwich
Filbert
Union
Green
Vallejo
Pacific
Jackson
Washington
Clay
Sacramento
California
Pine
Bush
Sutter
Post
Geary
O'Farrel
Ellis
Eddy
Turk
Tyler
Mc Allister
Yerba Buena Cemetery
Leavenworth
Hyde
Larkin
Polk
Van Ness
Franklin
Gough
Octavia
Laguna
Buchanan
Webster
Fillmore
Steiner
Pierce
Scott
Divisadero
Broderick
Baker
Lyon
Presidio
Walnut
Locust
Spruce
Presidio Ave
Sparks
Valparaiso
Public Square
Dupont
Montgomery
Sansom
Battery
Kearney
Ohio
Sabin
Jackson
Broadway
Taylor
Stockton
Powell
Mason
Parker
Kearny
Dupont
Merchant
Pike
Commercial
Leidesdorff
Summer
Clay
Wharf
Davis
Front
Reserve
Government
Steuart
East St.
Spear
Beale
Fremont
First
Second
John
Main
Embarcadero
Market
Stevenson
Jessie
Minna
Natoma
Mission
Howard
Folsom
Shotwell
Harrison
Bryant
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source of wealth of the inhabitants. This state is not well timbered, except on the mountains. On the range along the coast are extensive forests of cedar, which grow to an immense size, and furnishes a durable material for building. Toward the north and east, at the base of the Sierra Nevada, are immense forests of gigantic pines, cedars, firs, and other valuable timber trees, some of which are said to exceed 15 feet in diameter, and 200 feet in height. Omitting the lead, copper, and silver mines, which have been discovered, but not worked, in California, its gold, and cinnabar, or quicksilver mines, may be said to constitute its principal resources. The latter, though not much worked as yet, are regarded by many as the most valuable mining property in the state. That at New Almaden, a few miles south of San José, is one of the richest veins in the world, yielding from 40 to 75 per cent. of pure quicksilver. It is the opinion of good judges that, if properly worked, this mine would yield full $1,000,000 per annum. Although the existence of gold in this country had long been known, it never attracted general attention before 1848, when it was discovered near Sutter's Mill, on the south fork of American river. Since that time it has been found on all of the principal eastern branches of the Sacramento and San Joaquin, as well as among the coast range on the tributaries of the Trinity and Klamath, in the northern part of the state. In the spring of 1850 a new impulse was given to the enterprise, from the discovery of numerous veins of auriferous quartz in Mariposa county, since which others, richly impregnated with the precious metal have been successfully worked in various parts of the golden belt. The discovery of quartz veins in Mariposa, led to a more careful examination of other parts of the state, when gold-bearing quartz was found in almost every county along the foot-hills of the Sierra Nevada, as far north as the northern branches of the Feather river; and the county of Nevada has probably more quartz-mills now in operation than all the state besides; while El Dorado county has produced the richest quartz yet discovered, with perhaps the exception of the Carson creek vein. The product of the gold mines in 1852 is estimated at $70,000,000. The gold is found under two general forms—interspersed in irregular veins of quartz in the mountain rocks, and in lumps and scales, of all sizes down to "golden pebbles," metallic gravel, and sand, mingled with the alluvion, or drift, which occurs in the bottoms of valleys and ravines, and in the beds of the streams. In general, the loose gold, or *placers*, is found at no great distance from the parent veins, from which it has been disintegrated, and washed down the slopes by mountain torrents or rills. The scale or lump gold is found in the greatest abundance in the bottoms of the "gulches," or ravines, and in the banks and beds of the streams, particularly in the bars of sand and gravel, formed by the eddies, or counter-currents. Most of the gold hitherto dug has been taken from such localities, the river banks and beds yielding the most abundantly at the lowest stage of the water, which usually occurs during the first two months of fall. Sometimes the courses of the streams are diverted into new channels, by the erection of dams, in order to obtain the gold deposited in their beds. This is termed "wet digging," and can best be performed during summer and fall. The "gulches," or ravines, are usually free from water in the dry season, and hence the operations carried on in them, during spring and summer, are called "dry-diggings," which may be divided into three classes: 1st, the sand or earth in which the gold exists is collected in the dry ravines, or plains, and conveyed to some lake or stream, for washing; 2d, where lumps and scales are obtained, by means of shovels, picks, &c., from the sides of mountains, distant from water; 3d, the old Spanish method, by winnowing, from a large wooden bowl, the fine earthly particles, after the ore has been dried and pulverized, leaving the gold in the bottom. The modes of washing, or separating the gold from the earth, are various. The simplest method is the use of the wooden bowl. Some employ small wooden cradles,

three or four feet long, with cleats, or rockers, on the bottom, and a riddle at one end; others are made of sheet iron, with rounded bottoms and wooden rockers. Some use the "long tom," a structure eight or ten feet long, while others use the "Virginia rocker," amalgamating the gold with quicksilver. A great variety of other apparatus and expensive machines have been invented for separating the gold, some of which answer an admirable purpose; but the "burke" and the "long tom" are the general favorites, wherever an abundance of water is at command. In cases, however, where the gold occurs in fine particles, blended with black sand or alluvion, it can not be separated to advantage without the use of mercury.

Railroads.—California has no railroad in operation as yet, though one has been projected from San José, the recent capital, to San Francisco.

Commerce.—San Francisco is the principal commercial port of California. Its commercial resources are at present based upon its metallic wealth. Gold supplies the medium of domestic exchange, and of foreign commerce. San Francisco, therefore, is a mart for the competing trade of the whole world. The number of arrivals and departures of vessels at this port are more numerous than those at any other port in the United States, New York alone excepted. There are now about twenty ocean-steamers traversing the Pacific, and connecting with ports on the Atlantic, about sixty engaged in the river trade, and some four hundred other craft of various kinds navigating the rivers and bay. It has also considerable direct trade with the South American states, China, and the East Indies.

Education.—The constitution of California makes the following provision for the support of common schools throughout the state: "The legislature shall encourage, by all suitable means, the promotion of intellectual, scientific, moral, and agricultural improvement. The proceeds of all land that may be granted by the United States to this state for the support of schools, which may be sold or disposed of, and the 500,000 acres of land granted to the new states, under an act of Congress distributing the proceeds of the public lands among the several states of the Union, approved A. D. 1841; and all estates of deceased persons who may have died without leaving a will, or heir, and also such per cent. as may be granted by Congress on the sale of lands in this state, shall be and remain a perpetual fund, the interest of which, together with all the rents of the unsold lands, and such other means as the legislature may provide, shall be inviolably appropriated to the support of common schools throughout the state. The legislature shall provide for a system of common schools, by which a school shall be kept up and supported in each district at least three months in every year." The legislature is also required to provide for the election of a superintendent of public instruction; and to take measures for the improvement and permanent security of any funds arising from the sale of lands, or from any other source, for the endowment and support of a university.

Population.—The population of Upper California, in 1802, was estimated at 17,000; in 1831, 23,024; and by the state census, taken in 1852, was

Counties.	1852.	Counties.	1852.	Counties.	1852.	Counties.	1852.
Butte	8,572	Mendocino	416	San Luis Obispo	984	Sutter	1,207
Calaveras	20,092	Monterey	2,728	Santa Clara	6,664	Trinity	1,764
Colusi	620	Napa	2,116	Santa Cruz	1,219	Tuolumne	17,657
Contra Costa	2,745	Nevada	21.365	Santa Barbara	2,131	Tulare	8,575
El Dorado (estim'd)	30,000	Placer	10,784	Shasta	4,050	Yolo	1,307
Klamath	530	Sacramento	12,589	Sierra	4,855	Yuba	22,005
Los Angeles	7.831	San Diego	2,932	Siskiyou	2,240		
Marin	1,036	San Joaquin	5,029	Solano	2,835	Total	254,435
Mariposa	8,969	San Francisco	36,151	Sonoma	2,337		

Government.—The legislative power is vested in a senate and assembly. Senators not less in number than one third, nor more than one half the number of members of assembly, are elected by the people in districts, for a term of two years, so classified that one half may be chosen annually at the general election,

on the Tuesday after the first Monday in November. Members of the assembly are elected by the people annually in districts. There shall never be more than eighty, nor less than thirty. The executive power is vested in a governor and lieutenant governor, elected by the people for a term of two years. They must be over twenty-five years of age, citizens of the United States, and residents of the state two years next before the election. A secretary of state is appointed by the governor. A comptroller, treasurer, attorney and surveyor general, are to be elected by the people at the same time, and for the same term as the governor. In elections by the legislature, the members vote *viva voce*—by the people by ballot. The judicial power is vested in a supreme, district, and county courts, the judges of all of which are elected by the people. Every white male citizen of the United States, and every citizen of Mexico under the treaty of Queretaro, twenty-one years of age, resident in the state six months, and of the district where he offers to vote thirty days preceding the election, is entitled to vote.

History.—California was first settled by the Spaniards, in 1602, but prior to the year 1697, the colonists were all expelled by the ill-used natives, when Charles II., of Spain, granted the country to the Jesuits, with the view of converting the Indians to Christianity. Under their guidance, and the protection afforded by military posts in the vicinity of their missions, by the end of the last century numerous flourishing towns had sprung up, around which gathered thousands of the natives, by whose labor in rearing herds, and cultivating the most fertile parts of the soil, the wealth and prosperity of the Jesuits became immensely great. In 1824, California constituted one of the provinces of the new republic of Mexico, by whose acts the missions were virtually broken up, the reclaimed Indians dispersed, many of them joining the wild mountain tribes, and in the course of time, from the superior knowledge and bad habits they had acquired from the whites, they became notorious for their thievish and marauding character. In this state the country remained until 1846, when it was subjugated by the United States, under the joint efforts of Stockton, Kearney, and Fremont. In 1848, it was ceded to our government by Mexico. In September of the year following its constitution was formed, by a convention of delegates at Monterey, and ratified by the people in November following; and in 1850 it was admitted into the Union as an independent state. The following is an explanation of the design on the state seal: Around the bevel of the ring are represented thirty-one stars, being the number of the states of the Union, on the admission of California. The foreground figure represents the goddess Minerva, having sprung full-grown from the brain of Jupiter. She is introduced as a type of the political birth of California, without having gone through the probation of a territory. At her feet crouches a grisly bear, feeding upon clusters from a grape-vine, which, with a sheaf of wheat, are emblematic of the peculiar characteristics of the country. A miner is engaged at work, with a rocker and bowl at his side, illustrating the golden wealth of the Sacramento, upon whose waters are seen shipping, typical of commercial greatness; and the snow-clad peaks of the Sierra Nevada make up the background. Above, is the Greek motto, "*Eureka*" (I have found it), applying either to the principle involved in the admission of the state, or the success of the miners at work.

GOVERNORS OF CALIFORNIA.

Peter H. Burnet.....1849 John Bigler.....1851

TERRITORY OF OREGON.

The territory of Oregon is situated between 42° and 46° north latitude, and 109° and 124° longitude west from Greenwich; and is bounded north by the newly-organized territory of Washington, from which it is separated in part by Columbia river, east by the Rocky mountains, which separate it from the Northwest or Nebraska territory, south by Utah and California, and west by the Pacific. Its superficial area is about 200,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—Most of the surface of this territory is mountainous and broken. Westward of the Rocky mountains the country is divided into three sections, separated from each other by ranges, running nearly parallel with the shores of the Pacific, each of which have a distinction of soil, climate, and productions. The region between the Rocky and Blue mountains is rocky and sterile, traversed in various directions by stupendous spurs, and affords but little level ground. The middle section generally consists of a light sandy soil, though in the valleys it is of rich alluvion, and barren on the hills. The soil along the coast is less broken, and for the most part is well adapted for agricultural purposes, wherever it can be properly irrigated.

Mountains.—Along the easterly boundary lie the Oregon or Rocky mountains, several of the spurs of which traverse the upper region of this territory, and are of stupendous height. About 250 miles at the westward is the Blue mountain range, which is irregular in its course, and occasionally interrupted, but generally extends from a point east of north to the south of west. About 80 to 110 miles from the coast, and about 200 miles at the westward of the Blue mountains, is the Cascade or President range, the highest peaks of which are called Mount Jefferson, Mount Rainier, Mount Baker, Mount St. Helen's (an extinct volcano), Mount Pitt, and Mount Hood. Some of these are elevated from 12,000 to 17,000 feet above the level of the sea, and are perpetually crowned with snow. In the south part of the territory is the Klamath range, which forms the northern boundary of California.

Rivers and Harbors.—The chief river is the Columbia, which takes its rise near the sources of the Missouri, along the western dividing ridges of the Rocky mountains. Its principal tributaries are, the Lewis or Saptin, Flathead or Clark's, Kootanie or Flatbow, Chute or Falls, John Day's, Willamette, and Okonagon. The Klamath and Umpqua are considerable rivers, which empty into the Pacific. The Columbia river and Puget's sound afford the only good harbors at present on the coast of Oregon. The trade of that territory is principally through the former. Puget's sound is one of the best harbors on the Pacific coast. It has numerous narrow bays or inlets, all of them capable of floating the largest vessels, extending back into the surrounding country in every direction, and is accessible at all seasons of the year.

Climate.—The climate of the region between the coast and the first range of mountains, though not regarded as unhealthy, is temperate during the year, and is not subject to the extremes of heat and cold that are experienced in corresponding parallels on the eastern coast. The mean annual temperature is about 54° Fahrenheit. The rain begins to fall in November, and usually continues at frequent intervals till March. Snow sometimes falls, but rarely endures more than two or three days. From the proximity to the mountain winds frosts sometimes occurs in August. The climate of the middle region, though colder than that along the coast, is favorable to the growth of the small grains and grass. In the higher mountain regions the climate is severe, the temperature often varying 40° between sunrise and noon. Here it seldom rains, and

dews are rarely known. On the most elevated parts deep snows occur, and abide during the year.

Chief Towns.—Salem is the seat of government. The other populous towns are, Oregon City, Astoria, Clackmas City, Canema, Milwaukee, and Portland.

Productive Resources.—The chief products are, horses, mules, neat cattle, sheep, swine, furs, wool, lumber, wheat, rye, oats, barley, potatoes, and Indian corn. Oregon is peculiarly adapted to grazing, butter and cheese-making, for the cattle range all winter, and feed upon the grass, which is never entirely killed by frost, nor covered with snow. The mineral resources of the country are as yet unknown.

Commerce.—Since the discovery of gold in California, a great demand has arisen for the agricultural productions and lumber (which can be furnished to an almost unlimited extent) of Oregon, and, as a consequence, a commercial trade has sprung up. Commercial intercourse is also maintained with the Sandwich islands, and the Russian settlements on the north.

Education.—A female seminary is established at Portland, and three academies at Oregon City, and well-regulated schools in all the principal settlements.

Population.—In 1850, by counties, as follows :—

Counties.	1850.	Counties.	1850.	Counties.	1850.	Counties.	1850.
Benton	814	Clatsop	462	Marion	2,749	Yam Hill	1,512
Clackamas	1,859	Linn	294	Polk	1,051		
Clark	643	Lewis	558	Washington	2,651	Total	13,293

History.—Oregon embraces Oregon as claimed by Spain, prior to 1820, or a part of the territory claimed by Russia, prior to 1824, or a portion of the country claimed by Great Britain prior to 1846. Although this coast was explored by the Spaniards, in about the year 1542, and by Sir Francis Drake, in 1578, it would appear that no one penetrated far into the interior before 1792, when Captain Robert Gray, of Boston, Massachusetts, entered Oregon, or Columbia river, in the ship "Columbia Redivina," and gave to this river the present name it bears, after that of his vessel. In 1805, Lewis and Clarke were sent out by the United States government, with the express object of exploring the sources of the Missouri, and the region beyond the Rocky mountains, and descended the river Columbia to the Pacific, and returned the following year by the same streams. In 1808, a trading-house was established by the "Missouri Fur Company" on Lewis river, the first white settlement of any kind ever made on the waters of the Columbia. In 1810, a private expedition, called the "Pacific Fur Company," was undertaken, at the expense and under the direction of John Jacob Astor, of New York, who, in 1811, established a colony of one hundred and twenty men, near the mouth of the latter, and called the principal depôt "Astoria," after his own name. Two years after, settlements were made on the Multnomah and Lewis rivers, and other places in the interior. Soon after the commencement of the war between Great Britain and the United States, in 1813, Astoria was sold to the Hudson Bay Company, but was restored to the original proprietors in 1818, agreeably to the first articles of the treaty of Ghent. The sovereignty of Oregon was for a long time subject to a tedious and vexatious controversy by France, Spain, Great Britain, and Russia, with our government. In the convention of 1818, between the United States and Great Britain, the right of both parties to the country was mutually conceded. After much controversy the northern boundary was finally established in 1846, and a territorial government was organized, under an act of Congress, in 1848.

THE TERRITORY OF WASHINGTON is situated between 46° and 49° north latitude, and bounded on the north by the British Possessions, east by the Rocky mountains, south by the Oregon territory, and west by the Pacific. Columbia river forms the southern boundary as far east as Fort Walla-walla. Its superficial area is about 140,000 square miles. The characteristics of the country are similar to those of Oregon, from which it was separated in 1853. Two sections in each township are granted for common school purposes, and the laws of Oregon are extended over the territory, until modified by future legislation.

TERRITORY OF UTAH.

Utah, formerly a part of California, and the "Deseret" of the Mormons, is situated between 37° and 42° north latitude, and 106° and 120° longitude west from Greenwich; and is bounded on the north by the territory of Oregon, on the east by the Indian territory and New Mexico (from which it is separated by the crest of the Rocky mountains), on the south by New Mexico, and on the west by California. Its superficial area is 188,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—Utah is one of the most singular countries in the world. It occupies the northern portion of the great basin between the Sierra Nevada and the Rocky mountains. The basin is some 500 miles in diameter every way, and comprises an area of 393,601 square miles. It is between 4,000 and 5,000 feet above the level of the sea, shut in all around by mountains, with its own system of lakes and rivers, and without any direct connection with the ocean. Partly arid and thinly inhabited, its general character is that of a desert, but with great exceptions—there being many parts of it very fit for the residence of a civilized people; and of these the Mormons have established themselves in one of the largest and best. Mountain is the predominating structure of the interior of the basin, with plains between—the mountains wooded and watered, the plains arid and sterile.

Mountains.—As mentioned above, the Rocky mountains extend along the eastern border of this territory, and the Sierra Nevada along the west. Two other ranges cross the territory, one named the Wahsatch River mountains, and the other the Humboldt's River or Timpanogos mountains.

Rivers and Lakes.—The principal rivers in Utah are, the Colorado, which, rising among the Rocky mountains in Oregon, empties into the gulf of California, and Humboldt's river, rising in the mountains to which it has given a name, and, after a long and solitary course, emptying into Humboldt lake. Other rivers are, Bear, Utah, Timpanogos, Nicollet, Salmon-Trout, Carson, Walker's, and Owen's rivers. The most important lake in Utah is the Great Salt lake. The waters of this sheet are shallow, so far as explored, and are intensely salt, more so than those of the ocean—three gallons making one gallon of the purest, whitest, and finest salt. The shape of this lake is irregular, and it encloses numerous islands. It is supposed to be about seventy miles long. The lake has no known outlet. Utah lake is of fresh water, and is thirty-five miles long, and receives numerous fresh-water streams from the mountains. This lake abounds in fish. Utah lake is about 100 feet above the level of the Salt lake, and is connected with it by a strait, about thirty-five miles in length. There are several other smaller lakes in Utah, but little is known of them beyond their locality.

Climate.—The climate of Utah does not present the rigorous winter which its mountain structure would seem to call for. The temperature is little lower than that incident to the latitude, and summer is scarcely gone before November.

Chief Towns.—The capital of Utah is the City of the Great Salt Lake. It is beautifully laid out,* within a short distance of the mountains forming the eastern end of the valley. There is also another settlement on the Utah lake; and another in the valley of San Pete, 100 miles farther south, where are hier-

* The streets of the city intersect each other at right angles, and each block is half a mile square, with an alley from east to west, and north to south. Each block is called a ward, and has a bishop to preside over its government; their duties are to act as magistrates, tax collectors, and preachers, as well as street commissioners. The city and all the farming land are irrigated by streams of beautiful water, which flow from the adjacent mountains. These streams have been, with great labor and perseverance, led in every direction. In the city they flow on each side of the different streets, and their waters are let upon the inhabitants' gardens at regular periods; so likewise upon the extensive fields of grain lying in the south of the city.

oglyphic ruins, the remains of glazed pottery, &c., that indicate the former existence of the outlying cities of the Aztec empire.

Productive Resources.—Wheat, oats, and barley, yield abundantly in the great valley. Melons and all the vines grow in perfection, as also do vegetables; while hopeful efforts are making to raise the olive, orange, lemon, pine-apple, tea, coffee, &c. The valley below produces tropical fruits, while the beech land, or old lake shore, at the altitude of 300 or 400 feet, brings forth all the productions of the temperate zones; and still higher up, the cedar, pine, juniper, and other evergreens of a northern clime, flourish. The pasturage on the plains, as well as on the beech land and side-hills, is luxuriant (the verdure reaching to the mountain-tops), equal for fattening qualities to that of California. Utah abounds in minerals. A geographical survey has brought to light an inexhaustible bed of stone-coal, equalling that of Newcastle; iron ore, with a vein of silver running through it, which latter alone would pay for working; gold, in small quantities, and platina, are found; and traces of copper and zinc have been discovered. Its mineral springs are famous, little as they have been tried, and their analysis shows them to be equal to those most resorted to at the east.

Population.—A census of Utah was taken in 1850, but no returns have been made to the census bureau; therefore the number of its inhabitants is a matter of mere conjecture. But it may be set down at about 20,000.

Government.—Under the act of Congress organizing the territory of Utah a legislative assembly is provided for, elected annually by the people, consisting of a council and house of representatives. All laws passed by the legislature require the approval of Congress to be valid. The governor and secretary of state are appointed by the president for four years. The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, district and probate courts, the judges of which are appointed by the president. The right of suffrage and eligibility to office are secured to every white male inhabitant, who was a resident of the territory at its organization, but the qualifications at subsequent elections are prescribed by the territorial legislature.

History.—That portion of Alta-California, now designated as the territory of Utah, was never settled by the Spaniards, nor was it ever more than a nominal dependency of that nation, or of the Mexican republic. Previous to the Mexican war, indeed, few white men, except those engaged in scientific explorations, had entered the country. About the period when that war broke out, the Mormons were driven from their city of Nauvoo, in Illinois, by mob violence; and shortly afterward a portion of them, under the leadership of Strang, removed to Beaver island in Lake Michigan, while the main body of the sect, directed by Brigham Young (who was regarded as their true "prophet" after the death of their founder, Joseph Smith, and in opposition to the "infidel" leader Strang), migrated to the borders of the Great Salt lake. Their settlements became prosperous and populous, and within two years after the first pioneers had entered the country, their numbers had increased to about 10,000. After peace had been ratified, they found themselves without a civil government, and without protection for their persons or property. To remedy this anomalous condition of things, they organized a temporary government under the style of the "State of Deseret." Under its sanction they elected officers to manage the affairs of the commonwealth, and made application to Congress to be admitted into the Union as a sovereign state. But Congress did not deem that this new settlement had arrived at that state of maturity which would justify its erection into a state, and passed a law authorizing its organization as a territory. Congress reserved the right with Utah, as also with New Mexico, to divide it into two or more territories, or to attach portions of it to any state or territory in such manner and at such times as it may deem convenient and proper. Brigham Young was appointed governor of Utah in 1850.

TERRITORY OF NEW MEXICO.

The territory of New Mexico is situated between 38° and 32° north latitude, and 103° and 116° longitude west from Greenwich; and is bounded north by Utah and the Indian territory, east by the Indian territory and Texas, south by Mexico, and west by California and Utah. Its superficial area is about 211,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The general appearance of the country is mountainous, with a large valley in the middle running north and south, formed by the Rio Grande del Norte. This valley is gene ally about twenty miles wide, bordered on the east and west by mountain chains. There are some valleys of less extent along the borders of smaller streams, and a few spaces of elevated table-land. East of the Rocky mountains there are prairies and plains, and a portion of the great American desert. The soil in the valley of the Rio Grande in New Mexico is generally sandy, and looks poor, but by irrigation it produces abundant crops. The most fertile part of the valley begins below Santa Fé, along the river, where it is not uncommon to raise two crops within one year. The dryness of the soil makes it necessary to employ irrigation.

Mountains.—The Rocky mountain range traverses the eastern part of New Mexico, bearing different names at different points. South of Santa Fé it rises to 6,000 or 8,000 feet, while to the north some snow-capped peaks are seen which rise to from 10,000 to 12,000 feet above the sea-level. The Sierra Madre or Anahuac range stretches northward from the Mexican Cordilleras through the centre of the territory, and the Wahsatch mountains lie near the western boundary.

Rivers and Lakes.—The principal river of New Mexico is the Rio Grande del Norte. Its head waters are found in the Rocky mountains, and flowing south it enters the gulf of Mexico, forming, in the lower part of its course, the boundary line between Mexico and the United States. Its length is about 2,000 miles, and it is navigable for steamboats, about 700 miles from its mouth. Its principal tributaries are, the Chames, Pecos, Conchos, Salado, Alamo, and San Juan. The Colorado, which empties into the gulf of California, forms part of the western boundary, until it extends into the territory. The Gila, which flows westward, extends along the southern boundary until reaching its source in the Sierra Madre range; its principal branches are San Francisco and Salt rivers. About 100 miles southeast of Santa Fé, on the high table-land east of the Rio Grande, are several salt lakes, which furnish the country with salt.

Climate.—The climate is generally temperate, constant, and healthy. Considerable atmospheric differences, however, are experienced in the mountain districts, and in the low valley of the rivers. In the latter the summer heat sometimes rises to 100° Fahrenheit, but the nights are always cool and pleasant. The winters are comparatively of long duration, and frequently severe. The sky is generally clear, and the atmosphere dry, except during the rainy season, from July to October. Disease is little known, except some inflammations and typhoid fevers in the winter season.

Chief Towns.—The capital and chief city of New Mexico is Santa Fé, one of the oldest of the Spanish settlements. It is about twelve miles east of the Rio Grande, and lies in a wild plain, surrounded by lofty mountains. It contains about 8,000 inhabitants. It is the dépôt of a considerable commerce carried on between Northern Mexico and the western states, and is generally visited by the overland emigrants to California. The other towns are small. The principal ones are, Las Vagas, San Miguel, Canada, Taos, El Paso del Norte, Albuquerque, Valverde, San José, Ozani, and Socora.

Productive Resources.—Indian corn, wheat, beans, onions, and fruits, are raised in large quantities, and the grape-vine is extensively cultivated. The inhabitants pay considerable attention to cattle-raising, and are possessed of large flocks and herds. The country is rich in gold, silver, copper, iron, coal, gypsum, and salt. None but the silver mines, however, have been much wrought. There are considerable domestic manufactures.

Population.—The whole population of New Mexico, according to the census of 1793, was 30,953; in 1833, it was estimated at 52,360, composed of one twentieth Spaniards, one fifth Creoles, one fourth Mestizoes of all grades, and one half Pueblo Indians. In 1842, the population was 57,026; and according to the census of 1850, by counties, as follows: Santa Fé, 7,713; Taos, 9,507; Rio Ariba, 10,668; San Miguel, 7,071; Santa Aña, 4,656; Bernalio, 7,752; and Valencia, 14,207. Total, 61,574. This is exclusive of the independent tribes of Indians which still exist in the country.

Government.—The government of New Mexico is similar to that of Utah, and that generally applied to territories of the United States. All citizens of adult age are voters, and elect a territorial legislature. The governor and judges are appointed by the president of the United States.

History.—The history of New Mexico lies very much in the dark. The Spaniards, it seems, received the first information about it in 1581, from a party of adventurers under Captain Francisco de Levya Bonillo, who, upon finding the aboriginal inhabitants and the mineral wealth of the country to be similar to those of Mexico, called it New Mexico. In 1594, the then viceroy of Mexico, Count de Monterey, sent the gallant Juan de Oañte, of Zacatecas, to New Mexico, to take formal possession of the country in the name of Spain, and to establish colonies, missions, and presidios (forts). They found a great many Indian tribes and settlements, which they succeeded in Christianizing in the usual Spanish way, with sword in hand, and made them slaves. The villages of the Christianized Indians were called pueblos, in opposition to the wild and roving tribes that refused such favors. Many towns, of which only ruins exist now, were established at that time; many mines were worked, and the occupation of the country seemed to be secured, when, quite unexpectedly, in 1680, a general insurrection of all the Indian tribes broke out against the Spanish yoke. The Spaniards were either massacred or driven southward, where they founded Paso del Norte. The country was not recovered for ten or twelve years. Several insurrections have since occurred, but none so universal or disastrous as this one. This country followed the fate of Mexico after the revolution that overthrew the Spanish power. The history of New Mexico previous to the invasion by the Americans, has little to arrest attention. It is a continuous record of barbarism and tyranny. On the 8th of September, 1846, Santa Fé was captured by the Americans under General Kearney, and soon after several of the river towns were visited on his route to California. A civil government was now established. On the 19th of January, 1847, an insurrection broke out against the Americans, and in several pueblos many Americans were murdered. Taos, Arroya-Hondo, and Rio Colorado, were the chief scenes of strife. The battles of La Canada and El Embudo also occurred in this month, and in February the battle of Taos; in all of which the Mexicans were completely vanquished. Some few skirmishes occurred after these, but none of importance. From this period the United States authorities exercised exclusive power. On the 2d of February, 1848, a treaty of peace and cession was signed at Guadalupe Hidalgo, by which New Mexico was assigned to the Union. On the 9th of September, 1850, it was erected into a territory, the United States paying Texas ten millions of dollars as an equivalent for the claim she preferred to that portion of the territory of New Mexico which lies east of the Rio Grande. James S. Calhoun was appointed governor of New Mexico in 1851.

TERRITORY OF MINNESOTA.*

Minnesota Territory lies between 43° 30′ and 49° north latitude, and 89° 30′ and 102° 12′ longitude west from Greenwich; and is bounded north by the British possessions, east by Lake Superior and Wisconsin, from which it is separated in part by the Mississippi, south by Iowa, and west by the Northwestern territory, which is separated from it by the Missouri river. Its superficial area is 93,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—One of the most remarkable features in the face of this country is its general monotony. It contains no mountains nor mountain chains, nor any very lofty hills; but presents a dreary void of extensive prairies, interspersed by innumerable lakes, which give rise to various streams. Some elevations indeed there are, toward the sources of the larger rivers, and even there are a few hills that might be dignified, by way of contrast, with the title of mountains, sometimes rising abruptly amidst the prairies like an island in the sea. At many points along the Mississippi the banks are high, broken, and precipitous, yet there are many cases where they gradually slope to the water. In general the prairie region is less hilly and rocky than that of the forest; and in situations where they are not too wet, they are adapted to similar agricultural purposes as those in the same latitudes in Wisconsin and Michigan. The lands about Lake Pepin, in their general aspect, are well suited for grains; and for dairies, stock-raising, &c., they are seldom surpassed.

Rivers, Lakes, and Bay.—The chief rivers are, the Mississippi, Missouri, St. Peter's or Minnesota, James or Jacques, Wasses or Vermilion, Tchankasudata or Sioux, Hokah or Root, Crow, Crow-Wing, North Red, White Earth, East Swan, St. Louis, Turtle, Elk, Sac, and Pine. The lakes are numerous, among the largest of which are, Minsi Sagaigoning or Mille Lac, Winibigoshish, Leech, Kadikomeg, Gayaskh, Morrah Tanka, Pepin, and Superior. Fond du Lac bay, at the southwest corner of Lake Superior, borders on this territory.

Climate.—The climate of this territory, notwithstanding its northern position, is more favorable than the northern portions of New England and New York. Its winters, it is true, are severe and long, with continued deep snows for several months, and the lakes and streams strongly bound in ice; but during the growing season vegetation springs up like magic, and puts forward with astonishing rapidity and luxuriance. The spring and autumn are usually mild, and are less liable to destructive frosts, than those of the more eastern or northern states.

Chief Towns.—St. Paul's is the seat of government.† The other populous towns are, Crow, Wing, Mendota, Stillwater, St. Anthony, and St. Croix.

Productive Resources.—The agricultural products of this territory are similar to those of Wisconsin. At present the chief resources are, furs, lumber, and fish.

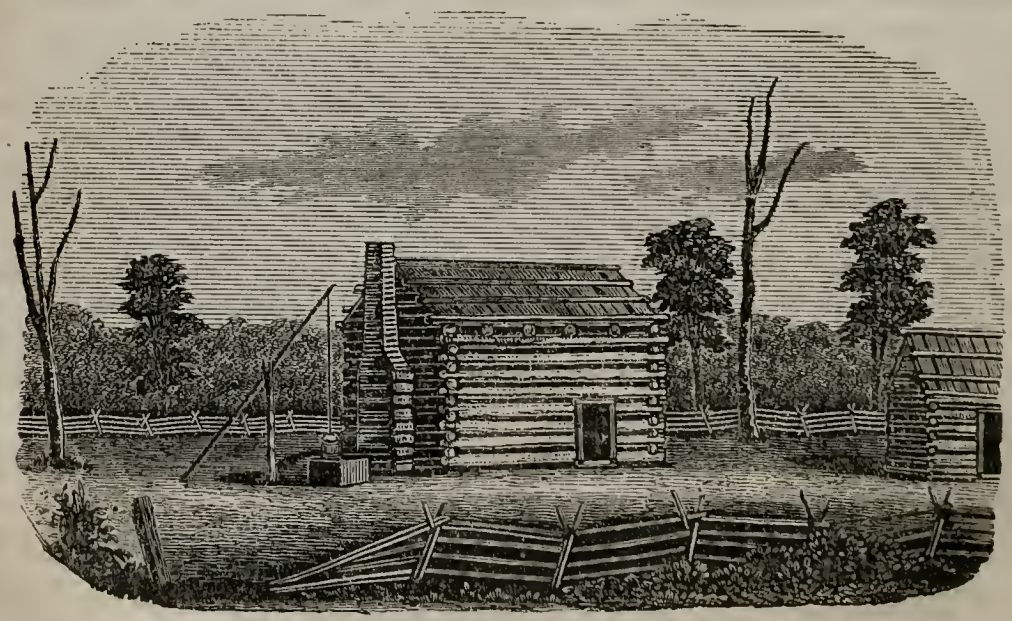
* The name Minnesota is derived from the Indian name of the St. Peter's river, the principal local stream of the country. The Indians living on its banks called it thus on account of the different appearance of the waters from those of the Mississippi. At the junction of the two streams, the waters of the last-named river may be observed generally tinged of a chocolate color, derived from the extensive tamarac and pine swamps toward the north, in which it partly has its head-springs; while the waters of the Minnesota are entirely different in appearance, being light-colored and clear. The name is compounded of two words, *minne*, "water," *sotah*, "sky-colored." This poetical designation, "The territory of the sky-colored water," receives additional ornament in the Dakotah name, bestowed on the junction of the river with the Mississippi, that of *Mendota*, or, "Mingling of the waters." This is also the appellation of the Indian trading town at the mouth.

† The situation of St. Paul's is unsurpassed for beauty of view. It stands on a lofty bluff overlooking the winding Mississippi. The plain is just undulating and broken enough to save it from the uniformity of a perfect level, and presents an agreeable variety in the appearance of the town. The streets are laid out regularly, and are of ample width, not built up as yet with substantial houses, but rapidly improving. The number of inhabitants is some 2,500, and there is an air of brisk progress and life about the place, which, with its advantages of location (being at the head of navigation), and the increasing resources of the country, will, in a short time, make it a city of importance.

Population.—In 1850, by counties, as follows: Benton, 418; Dakotah, 584; Itaska, 97; Mahkatah, 158; Pembina, 1,134; Ramsay, 2,227; Wabashaw, 243; Wahnahta, 160; Washington, 1,056. Total, 6,077.

Government.—The government of Minnesota is that usually applied to territories of the United States. All citizens of adult age are voters, and elect a territorial legislature. The governor, secretary of state, and judges of the supreme and other courts, are appointed by the president of the United States. Among the important acts of the first territorial legislature, are those establishing a judiciary, a school system, dividing the territory into suitable civil districts, and appointing officers to enforce the laws, and relative to the improvement of roads. All these will have a paramount influence over the future destiny of the country. Perhaps one of the most humane and politic acts of the legislature is, the admission to citizenship of "all persons of a mixture of white and Indian blood, who shall have adopted the habits and customs of civilized men;" and not less politic is that law which requires the establishment of schools throughout the territory. The act of the general government organizing the territory appropriates two sections of land in every township for the support of common schools. No other territory or state in the Union had received more than one section in each township for such purpose previously.

History.—The territory of Minnesota embraces a portion of Upper Louisiana, as held by the French, prior to the year 1762, when it was ceded to Spain, together with the remainder of her possessions in North America. It was first explored by Hennipen, in 1680, who ascended the Mississippi beyond the Falls of St. Anthony. In 1800, it was receded to France by a secret treaty, who formally took possession of the country in 1803, and immediately after it was sold to the United States. Subsequent to this Minnesota constituted a part of the Missouri territory, which was supposed to contain all the Mississippi to the "South sea," except a portion of the present state of Louisiana. Still later, Wisconsin and Iowa territories were erected, from portions of which this new territory was organized by act of Congress, in 1849. Earl Selkirk commenced a settlement on Red river, near the mouth of the Pembina, in 1812.



WESTERN LOG-CABIN.

INDIAN TERRITORY.

This is a vast region, set apart by the United States as the permanent home of certain Indian tribes and natives who have been removed thither. It lies between 34° and 40′ north latitude, and 94° 20′ and 100° longitude west from Greenwich. It is bounded north by the Northwestern territory, east by Missouri and Arkansas, south by Texas and New Mexico, and west by Texas, New Mexico, and Utah. Its superficial area is about 200,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The Ozark range of mountains traverse the southwestern corner of this tract. From this point westward the country presents a series of slightly-undulating plains, gradually ascending toward the Rocky mountains, where they have an elevation of 4,000 or 5,000 feet. These mountains, forming the western boundary, rise to the elevation of 12,000 feet. The Great American desert stretches along the eastern part of the Rocky mountains, from the Northwestern territory through the Indian territory into Texas, a length of nearly 600 miles. Its width varies from 100 to 200 miles. The soil of this is arid, sterile, and almost destitute of trees, and even of shrubs. There are occasional plains and prairies, which afford subsistence to herds of bison, wild horses, and other animals. A belt of about 200 miles wide, adjoining Arkansas and Missouri, is favorable to settlement. Its soil is fertile, and it is watered by numerous rivers, none of which, however, are adapted to navigation.

Climate.—The atmosphere is salubrious, and in the southern portion the climate is so mild, that domestic animals find support through the winter without the care of their owners.

Resources.—Iron, lead, and coal, are abundant. The Indians have, in many instances, converted their settlements into well-cultivated farms, and the various grains, vegetables, and other agricultural products of corresponding latitudes east of the Mississippi, are raised in abundance.

Population.—The inhabitants of the Indian territory consist of tribes indigenous to the country, and the tribes transported thither under the authority of the United States. The numbers belonging to each class and tribe respectively are as follows :—

Indigenous Tribes.—Pawnees, 12,500 ; Osages, 4,102 ; Kansas, 1,700 ; Omahas, 1,301 ; Otoes and Missouris, 931 ; Puncahs, 777 ; Quapaws, 400. Total, 21,711.

Immigrant Tribes.—Cherokees, 29,911 ; Creeks, 24,594 ; Choctaws, 12,410 ; Seminoles, 3,136 ; Chippewas, Ottawas, &c., 2,028 ; Chickasaws, 4,111 ; Delawares, 1,059 ; Kickapoos, 505 ; Peorias and Kaskaskias, 150 ; Piankeshaws, 98 ; Senecas from Sandusky, 125 ; Senecas and Shawnees, 211 ; Shawnees, 887 ; Stockbridges, Munsees, &c., 278 ; Swan Creek, &c., 62 ; Weas, 176 ; Winnebagoes, 2,182 ; Wyandots of Ohio, 385. Total, 78,309.

Government.—The Cherokees, Creeks, and Choctaws, are the most advanced toward civilization of any of the foregoing tribes. They have good houses, well-fenced and well-tilled fields, and own horses and cattle to a considerable extent. They have also native mechanics and merchants. They have adopted an improved system of government. The Choctaws and Creeks have a written constitution ; and the former have introduced trial by jury. The other transported tribes are said to have improved in their condition since their removal from the east. But the indigenous tribes have not, as a general thing, improved in the same degree as their brethren from the east. They still cling to their wild pleasures, and prefer the excitement of the hunt, and of war, to the peaceful monotony of civilization.

NORTHWESTERN TERRITORY.

This is a vast unorganized territory, the greater portion of which has never been explored, except by the Indians. It lies between 40° and 49° north latitude, and 95° and 114° longitude west from Greenwich; and is bounded north by the British possessions, east by Minnesota and Iowa, south by the Indian territory, and west by the Rocky mountains, which divide it from Oregon and Utah. Its superficial area is about 580,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The greater part of this immense territory is watered by the Missouri river and its numerous tributaries. The Yellow Stone, the largest tributary, extends its branches to the very base of the Rocky mountains, and to near the sources of the Nebraska. A mountain ridge, which branches from the great Rocky mountains, in about 42° north latitude, traverses the country in a northeasterly direction toward Lake Winnipeg. In the eastern portion of the territory the country is partly covered with forests, but beyond this commences a vast ocean of prairie, almost level, and clothed in grass and flowers.

Climate.—In a country of such extent, generally level, naked, and open, the climate must in a great measure correspond to the latitude. Immediately on the borders of the settled states it is mild and temperate; beyond, it gradually becomes more extreme; and toward the mountains cold, bleak, and polar. Travellers speak of encountering storms of hail and sleet in the summer. When the winds blow from the west, over the mountain summits, the cold is intense.

History.—This territory is a part of the Louisiana purchase. That portion of the country lying between the summit of the Rocky mountains on the west, and the states of Missouri and Iowa on the east, the parallel of 43° north latitude on the north, and the territory of New Mexico and the parallel of 36° 30′ north latitude on the south, is termed the Nebraska Territory. An act for the organization of this territory passed the house of representatives in February, 1853, but failed to be acted on in the senate. It includes a part of the land set apart for the Indians, and the act provided that their rights should not be affected by the organization without their consent. The country north of the Platte valley still retains the name of "Northwestern Territory," it being a part of the former extensive territory under that name, from which several states have been set off. The territory is now inhabited by Indians, but the time is not far distant when the pioneer will penetrate its forests and prairies, and bring under cultivation the soil that as yet has never been turned by the labor of man.

AN INDIAN VILLAGE.

MEXICO.

The republic of Mexico lies between 15° 20′ and 33° 30′ north latitude, and 90° and 117° longitude west from Greenwich; and is bounded by Texas and the gulf of Mexico on the northeast and east, by Central America on the southeast, by the Pacific ocean on the southwest and west, and by the United States on the north. Its greatest length is about 1,400 miles, its greatest breadth about 650 miles, and its superficial area about 1,000,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The surface of Mexico is extremely varied. On the immediate coasts of the two oceans the land is low, but toward the centre it is elevated. The Cordillera mountains which commence at Panama, and run northward, diverge, after leaving Central America, into two great arms, following the coast on either side. The vast tract between these mountain-chains forms the table-lands of Mexico—the plateau of Anahuac—elevated from 6,000 to 8,000 feet above the ocean's level. Hence, though a large portion of this table-land is south of the tropic, it enjoys a moderate climate, inclining, indeed, more to cold than an excess of heat. Some very high mountains are dispersed over the surface of these table-lands, and in some parts some well-defined ridges are recognised; these divide it into sub-plateaux, which are known under a variety of local names. But the surface is interrupted by few transverse valleys, and in some directions it is quite unbroken, either by depressions or by hills. The most remarkable tract in this elevated region is the plain of Tenochtitlan (in which is the city of Mexico, the capital). It is of an oval form, 54 miles long and 37 miles broad, occupying an area of 1,700 square miles, of of which about 160 square miles are covered with water.

Volcanic Mountains.—On the southeast side of the Tenochtitlan, towering above the plain, are seen the volcanoes of Popocatepetl, 17,735 feet, Iztaccihuatl, 15,700 feet, Cittalapetl or Orizaba, 17,388 feet, and Nauhcampapetl or the Coffre de Perote, 13,514 feet above the sea. Besides these volcanoes, those of Tuxtla, Jorulla, and Colima, in the table-land, are at present in a state of activity, and there are several others now extinct.

Rivers and Bays.—Compared with the extent of Mexico, her rivers are few and unimportant, and great disadvantages are suffered for want of water communication. The Rio Grande del Norte, which separates the United States from Mexico, has a long course, but the trade on that river must ever be monopolized by the superior ability and energy of the Americans. The Rio Grande de Santiago rises in the centre of the republic, not far from the capital, and, after traversing the Lake Chapala, falls into the Pacific at San Blas. The Balsas or Zacatula, Nasca, and Verde are the other rivers on the west side of the plateau; and on the east side are the Tula, Tampico, and Tobasco, flowing into the gulf; but they have bars at their mouths, which prevent the entrance of large ships. The other rivers are short, and might more properly be called torrents. The gulf of California is 800 miles long, and from 80 to 100 broad; its navigation is much obstructed by shoals. The bay of Campeachy, in the gulf of Mexico, and Tehuantepec, on the Pacific coast, are the termini of the contemplated railroad through Mexico.

Lakes.—The waters of the valley of Mexico are deposited in five principal lakes, situated on different levels: the salt lake of Tezcuco, near the centre of the valley, covering seventy square miles, is the least elevated. Further north

MAP OF
MEXICO.
Guaymas
Presidio Rio Grande
Laredo
Corpus Christi
Matamoras
Camargo
Reinosa
Villa del Fuerte
COHAHUILA
NEW
Cohahuila
Monterey
Linares
Cinaloa
El Alamo
Coguito
Pt. Medano
Espiritu Santo
Cerralbo
Colasa
C. Palmo
Mazatlan
DURANGO
Guiacan
San Francisco
S. Catarina
Durango
or Victoria
La Salada
L. of Carbonate of Soda
Mines of Catorce
New Santander
Barra de Santander
Padilla
Aguayo
Hojos
Natividad
Burgos
Saltillo
San Lorenzo
Encarnacion
S. Lucia
S. Teresa
ZACATECAS
Veta Grande
Mines
Zacatecas
Cajalote
Caliente
Buena Vista
Charcas
El Venado
Pietil
R. Tampico
Tampico
Panuco
SAN LUIS POTOSI
San Luis Potosi
Cartagena
Tlaltenango
Santiago
Lastres Marias
San Blas
Guadalajara
R. Grande de Santiago
S. Juan de Lagos
GUANAXUATO
Guanaxuato
QUERETARO
Queretaro
Tuspan
Zacualtipan
C. Roxo
Pt. Piedras
BAY OF CAMPEACHY
Tepic
C. Corrientes
Jalapa
Tecolutlan
Zamora
Chapala
Valladolid
Sayula
Zapotilla
Ciguatan
Tumpio
VALLADOLID
Tuspan
Colima Vol.
COLIMA
Pt. Farallones
Acullo
R. Balsas
Istapa
Taipan
Chilapa
Tumpanyo
Otumba
Tezcuco
Chalco
Chobula
Cuatitlan
Toluca
Tlalpan
MEXICO
Tasco
Popocatepell Vol.
Guatasco
La Puebla
Vera Cruz
S. Barbara
Castle
San Juan de Ulloa
Tuxtla
S. Hermano
Villa Hermosa
TOBASCO
Oaxaca
Quistlahuaca
Zimatlan
Tehuantepec
Yolotepec
Tilapa
G. of Tehuantepec
Acapulco
Pt. Soccorro
Campeche
Lerma
Champoton
Pt. Morillos
L. de Terminos
Palenque ru.
Ciudad Real
Tapachula
Petapa
Yaveo
Chiapa
CHIAPA
VERAPAZ
San Benito
L. Peten
Merida
Valladolid
Uxmal Ru.
Sisal
Sisanta
Pt. Palma
Chipilo
Ar
Golfo Dolce
Yzabal
Quesaltenango
Longitude West
from Washington
32
28
24
20
16
12
26
22
18

are the lakes of St. Christoval and Tonanitla — while south is the lake Chalco, occupying an area of fifty-one square miles ; and these three are five feet higher than that of Tezcuco. The most elevated, however, of the whole, though the smallest, is Zimpango, the level of which is thirty feet above that of Tezcuco. These lakes are fed by numerous small rivers, and having no natural outlet, are drained by an artificial canal cut through the rock, 12 miles in length, 150 feet deep and 300 feet wide — having its embouchure in the river Panuco, which flows eastward to the gulf of Mexico. The water of Lake Tescuco is salt, that of the rest is fresh ; but from those to the south sulphuretted hydrogen is copiously disengaged, the stench of which is often perceptible in the city of Mexico. The principal lakes, besides those in the valley of Mexico, are Chapala, in Kalisco, which, according to Humboldt, covers an area of 1,300 square miles ; Pascuara, in Mechoacan ; Mextitlan, Cayman, and Parras, the last two being in the tract called Bolson de Mapimi.

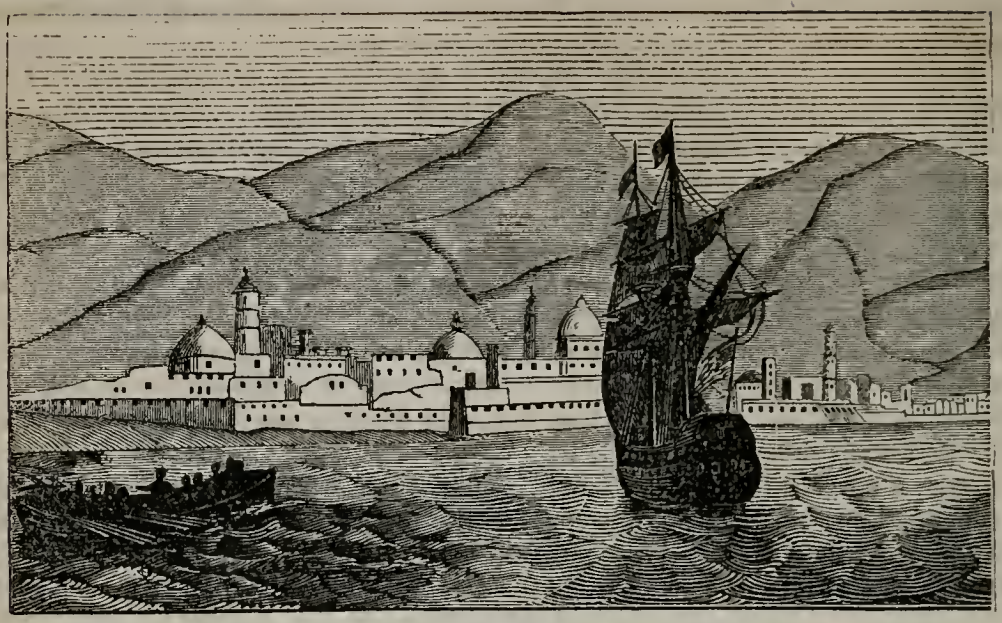
Animal Kingdom.—The zoology of Mexico is but little known. The bison and the musk-ox wander in immense herds in the north. The jaguar (the Mexican tiger), and the cougar (the Mexican lion), are met with in the tropical regions. The Mexican bear is the same as that in the United States. Other wild animals of Mexico are the red deer, the wolf, the porcupine, &c. Wild horses, in immense herds, gallop over the plains of Mexico. Domestic animals also, such as horses, cattle, and sheep, are numerous in some parts of the country, and hides and tallow form important articles of export.

Minerals.—The principal wealth of Mexico lies in its mines, more particularly those of silver. They number about 3,000, which formerly produced about $20,000,000 annually ; but the ignorance and misrule which prevail in the country have greatly diminished their importance and value. Iron is found in great abundance in Guadalaxara, Mechoacan, and Zacatecas ; copper in Mechoacan and Guanaxuato. Tin is obtained partly from mines, but principally from the washings of the ravines. The lead mines, though rich, are entirely neglected. Zinc, antimony, and arsenic, have been found, but neither cobalt nor manganese. A quicksilver mine is wrought in the state of Queretaro, but the greater quantity used in the extraction of the precious metals is obtained from Spain, and, in a great measure, the quantity of the metals produced depends on the supplies of quicksilver from that country. Carbonate of soda, used in smelting the silver ore, is found in great abundance, crystalized on the surface of the lakes.

Agricultural Products.—Mexico has been celebrated for the great variety of productions which can be raised there. Among the vegetable productions are Indian corn, which produces, in some localities, two crops a year, wheat, barley, rye, and potatoes. Most of the fruits of the temperate and tropical climates flourish here, among which the banana occupies a prominent place ; and cotton, coffee, sugar, tobacco, indigo, honey, wax, vanilla, cochineal, dye-woods, and mahogany, are also among the productions of Mexico.

Manufactures.—Manufactures in Mexico are, and must long continue, in a very rude state. The factories in general are so many prisons, in which the work-people, taken from the jails, or from the most debased classes of society, are used with the greatest rigor. Criminals and insolvent debtors are made to labor in these prisons as a punishment. The only articles produced on a large scale are hats, glass, cigars, and earthen-ware. Mexican leather is very indifferent ; paper is of a poor quality ; cutlery and hardware are scarcely attempted ; the use of cast-iron and tin for culinary utensils is almost unknown, and within a few years there was but one manufacturer of watches and optical instruments in the whole country.

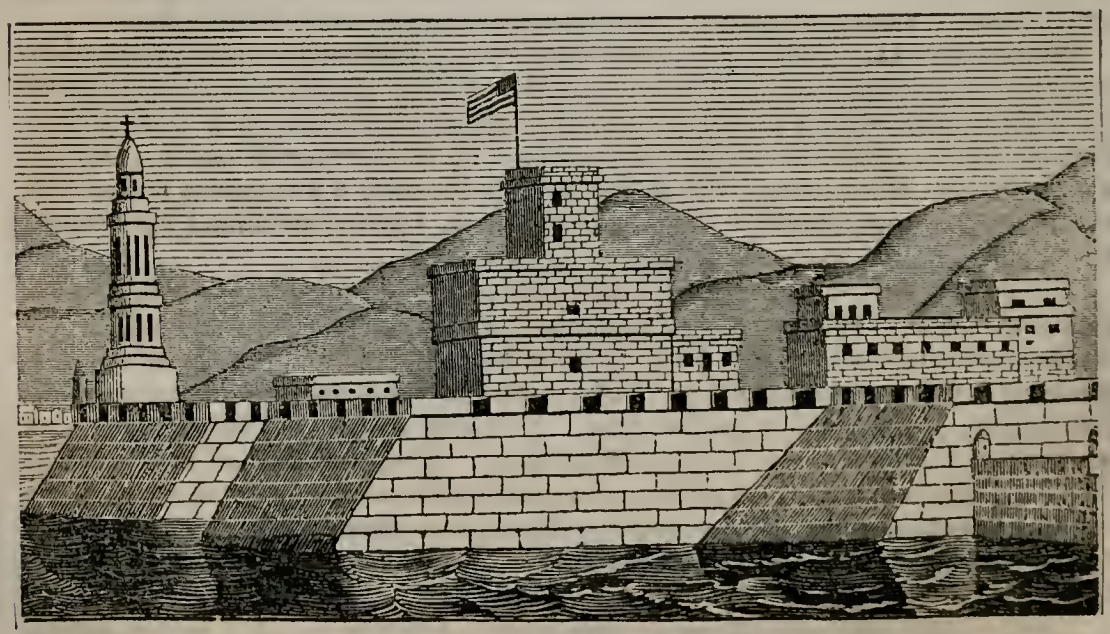
Commerce.—The commerce of Mexico does not correspond with its reputed wealth. The precious metals form its principal articles of export ; and next to these may be named cochineal, drugs, dye-stuffs, &c. The imports are, foreign



CITY OF VERA CRUZ.

manufactures, wines, spirits, &c. The principal ports of Mexico are, Vera Cruz,* Tampico, Soto la Marina, Tobasco, and Matamoras, on the gulf of Mex-

* This beautiful city, the capital of the state of Vera Cruz, in situated on the gulf of Mexico, in 19° 12′ north latitude, and 96° 9′ longitude west from Greenwich. The town is well built, and clean, and its towers, cupolas, and battlements, give it an imposing appearance from the sea. It is, however, surrounded by barren sand-hills, and ponds of stagnant water, and is excessively unhealthy, being, in fact, the principal seat of the yellow fever. The older inhabitants and those accustomed to the climate are not so subject to this formidable visitation as strangers, all of whom, even if coming from Havana and the West India islands, are liable to the infection. No precautions prevent its attack, and numerous individuals have died at Jalapa, on the road to Mexico, who merely passed through this pestilential focus. The badness of the water at Vera Cruz is supposed to have some share in producing the complaint. The houses of Vera Cruz are mostly large, some of them being three stories high, built in the old Spanish or Moorish style, and generally enclosing a square court, with covered galleries. They have flat roofs, glass windows, and generally wooden balconies in front, their interior arrangement being the same as in old Spain. The town and castle are built of madrepore, the lime that forms the cement being of the same material. There is one tolerably good square, of which the government-house forms one side, and the principal church the other. The footpaths are frequently under arcades. No fewer than sixteen cupolas or domes used to be counted from the sea, but only six churches are now in use; and most of the religious buildings have been neglected or abandoned since the Spaniards were expelled from the town. Rain-water is carefully preserved in tanks; and most sorts of provisions, excepting fish, are dear. Crowds of vultures and buzzards perform the office of scavengers.



CASTLE OF SAN JUAN DE ULLOA.

The castle of San Juan de Ulloa, which commands the town, is built on the small island of the same name, about 400 fathoms from the shore. It is a strong citadel, and its northwest angle supports a lighthouse, with a

ico, and Acapulco, San Blas, and Mazatlan, on the Pacific, and Guayamas, on the gulf of California.

POPULATION.—The population given in the following table of the Mexican states and their capitals, is from a report of the "National Institute of Geography and Statistics," made for the use of the supreme government in 1839; it is the latest, and (being official) may be regarded as the nearest approximation to the actual population of Mexico that can be obtained. It is composed of Indians, Spaniards, half-bloods, negroes, Europeans, and other foreigners.

States.	Area in square miles.	Population.	Capitals.	Pop. of Capitals.
Aguas Calientes	new state*	———	Aguas Calientes	20,000
California (Lower)	57,029	33,439	Loreto	500
Chiapas	18,750	141,206	Cuidad Real	3,000
Chihuahua	107,500	147,600	Chihuahua	30,000
Coahuila	93,600	75,340	Coahuila	4,000
Durango	54,500	162,618	Durango	25,000
Federal District	100	1,389,520	Mexico	200,000
Mexico	25,450		Tlalpan	12,000
Guanaxuato	8,000	513,666	Guanaxuato	60,000
Mechoacan	22,468	497,906	Valladolid	25,000
Neuvo Leon	21,000	101,408	Monterey	15,000
Oajaca	32,650	500,278	Oajaca	40,000
Puebla	18,440	661,992	Puebla	95,000
Queretaro	7,500	120,560	Queretaro	40,000
San Luis Potosi	19,000	331,840	San Luis Potosi	50,000
Sinaloa	54,700	147,000	Sinaloa	13,000
Sonora	200,000	124,000	Arispe	5,000
Tamaulipas	35,100	100,068	Neuvo Santander	4,000
Tobasco	14,676	63,580	Villa Hermosa	5,000
Vera Cruz	27,660	254,380	Vera Cruz	15,000
Xalisco	73,000	679,111	Guadalaxara	60,000
Yucatan	79,500	580,984	Merida	15,000
Zacatecas	19,950	273,575	Zacatecas	25,000
Total	990,573	6,898,071		

CITIES AND TOWNS.—The principal cities and towns in Mexico (in addition to the capitals of the respective states, which are named in the above table) are the following: in the state of TAMAULIPAS, Tampico, and Soto la Marina; in NUEVO LEON, Linares, Revilla, and Natividad; in COAHUILA, Saltillo,† Parras, Salado, Santa Rosa, and Aguaverde; in CHIHUAHUA, San Bartolomeo, El Parral, and Parras; in SONORA, Guayamas, Arispe, and Pitic; in SINALOA, Mazatlan, Culiacan, Villa de Fuerte, and Alamos; in SAN LUIS POTOSI, Catorce, San Juan, Charcas, and Guadalupe; in ZACATECAS, Sombrerete, Fresnillo, Jerez, and Pinos; in GUANAXUATO, Salamanca, Zelaya, and Irapuato; in XALISCO or GUADALAXARA, Tepec, and San Blas; in MECHOACAN, Tzinzontzan; in VERA CRUZ, Jalapa, and Alvarado; in MEXICO, Acapulco; in QUERETARO, Pasco, San Juan del Rio, San Miguel, and Alpujarras; in PUEBLA, Cholula, Huamantla, and Napolucan; in TABASCO, Frontera de Tabasco, and Tonala; in CHIAPAS, Chiapa dos Indios; in YUCATAN, Campeaché, Bacalar, Vittoria, and Valladolid.

CAPITAL.—The city of Mexico, the capital of the republic, in situated in the state of the same name, in latitude 19° 26′ north, and longitude 101° 26′ west, and 7,400 feet above the level of the sea. The present city occupies only a

brilliant revolving light, seventy-nine feet above the sea. The harbor of Vera Cruz is a mere roadstead between the town and castle, and is exceedingly insecure, the anchorage being so very bad that no vessel is considered safe, unless made fast to brass rings fixed for the purpose, in the castle wall; nor are these always a sufficient protection during strong northerly winds. But notwithstanding its numerous disadvantages, Vera Cruz maintains its commercial importance: though latterly Tampico, in a healthier situation, with a better port, has been growing into consequence. Vera Cruz was founded toward the end of the 16th century, on the spot where Cortez first landed: it received the title and privileges of a city from Philip III. in 1615. The castle was taken by a French squadron, after a vigorous bombardment, in 1839, but was soon after restored to the Mexicans. It was again captured, on the 26th of March, 1847, by the Americans under General Scott, and the city and castle occupied by the American forces until the restoration of peace between the United States and Mexico.

* Area and population (69,603) included in the states of Zacatecas, Xalisco, and Guanaxuato.

† Saltillo is a city of about 12,000 inhabitants, and was, for a long period, the headquarters of Major-General Taylor during the war with Mexico. Buena Vista, the scene of a battle as glorious to the American arms as disastrous to those of Mexico, lies a few miles south of Saltillo.

part of the ancient city of Tenochtitlan, which was founded 200 years before its conquest by Cortez. The location is near Lake Tezcuco, before referred to. Mexico is considered one of the finest cities ever built by Europeans in either hemisphere. The city is built in the form of a square, of about four miles on a side. Many of the streets are two miles in length, perfectly level and straight. The Plaza Major is one of the finest squares to be seen in any city in the world. The east side is occupied by the cathedral,* a magnificent building; the north by a splendid palace, formerly occupied by the viceroys; the south by a fine row of houses, in the centre of which is a palace called Caza del Estada, on the site of the "Halls of Montezuma;"† and on the west are ranges of handsome shops and private dwellings. The public buildings are very numerous. Near the suburbs to the north is the Alameda, or great promenade. In the centre is a magnificent fountain. The population is of a mixed character, about one half being Creoles, one fourth half-blood Indians, with some negroes and mulattoes, and about 7,000 Europeans. The people are much addicted to pleasure and gambling. The ladies seldom go out during the day, but after sundown the public squares are thronged with them. Mexico, when discovered by the Spaniards, was a rich and populous city. It was taken by them in 1521, after a protracted siege, in the course of which it was nearly destroyed. It subsequently suffered during the revolution, and was again captured by the United States army under General Scott, and continued in the hands of the Americans till the conclusion of the war.

Education.—The necessity of education is recognised by the constitution, which requires that the priests should teach all persons to read and write; but the regulation has little practical effect. Under the old government, botanical pursuits were much encouraged: chemistry and mineralogy were taught in the school of mines; but the progress of science, literature, and the arts, have all been checked by the unsettled state of the country since the revolution. The only school of any reputation in all Mexico is the military academy at Chapultepec, and that was suspended on the entrance of the American armies into Mexico, perhaps never to be revived. Schools of law and medicine there are none deserving of the name, and it may be well imagined that schools of industry or commerce are wholly unknown.

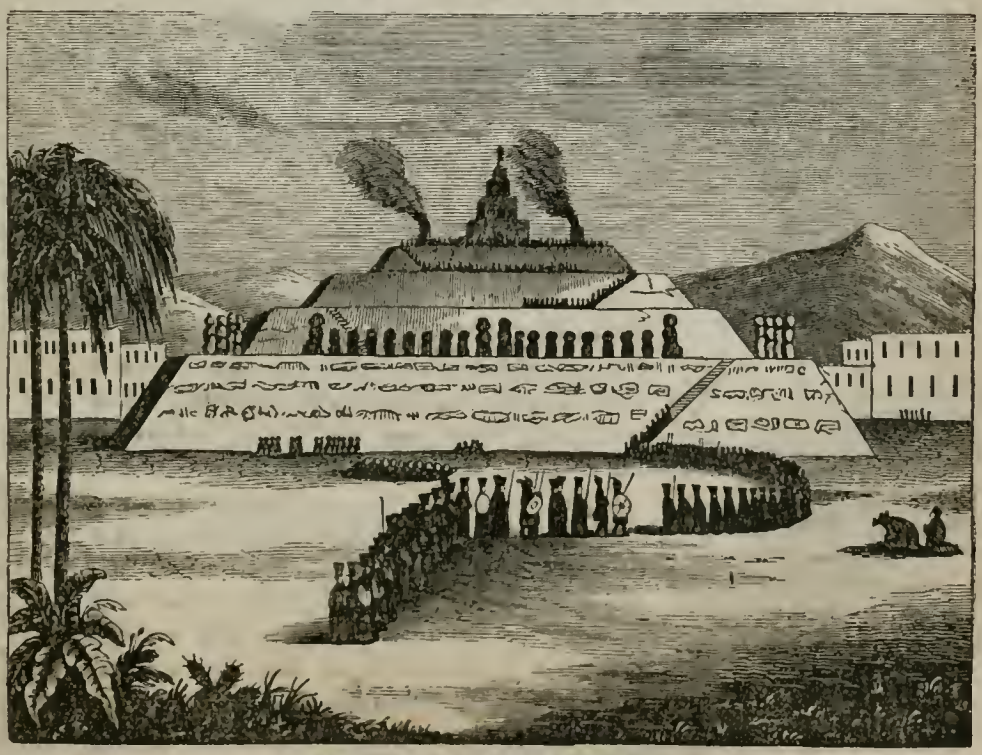
Religion.—The Roman catholic is the only publicly-recognised religion in Mexico, but others are tolerated. Ecclesiastical property is free from taxation, and the priests have the sole management of property bequeathed for pious purposes. During the late war with the United States they were compelled to contribute liberally to the support of the army. The annual income of the ecclesiastics is estimated, in the aggregate, at from $15,000,000 to $20,000,000.

Government.—The government of Mexico is fundamentally and nominally

* The cathedral stands on the site of the ancient temple dedicated to the sun, a view of which is given opposite. It was a place for worship and human sacrifice. When this great temple was consecrated, nearly 60,000 human beings were sacrificed. Its flights of steps, its broad terraces, and frowning battlements, were wet with human gore! It was a triple pyramid, with a place for sacrifice on the top. It was surrounded by a stone wall eight feet thick, crowned with battlements, and ornamented with figures in the form of serpents. The interior of the enclosure was paved with polished porphyry, and was spacious enough to contain 500 houses. The walls had four gates, and over each was a military arsenal. From the centre arose the great Teocatlis or temple. This temple was erected by Montezuma's immediate predecessor, in 1486; it was destroyed by Cortez in 1521.

† If we may believe the glowing accounts of Clavigero and other early Spanish writers, concerning the wealth and magnificence of Montezuma, the last of the ancient Mexican sovereigns, the splendor and pageantry of his court rivalled that of Eastern monarchs, famed in history and romance. The palace covered a vast area in the centre of the ancient city near the Great Temple. Its interior columns and tesselated pavements of porphyry and amygdaloid were beautiful in the extreme, while the external walls were so well whitened and polished, that to the excited imaginations of the Spaniards, they seemed constructed of silver. Some idea of the extent of the palace, or "halls," may be formed by a consideration of the fact, that, in addition to a large number of resident servants, all of noble extraction, six hundred nobles were in daily attendance upon the emperor. The servants that accompanied them were more numerous than their masters, and occupied small courts of the palace; and a seraglio or harem, forming a part of the royal house, contained over six hundred women. And yet, so extensive were the "halls," that Montezuma entertained Cortez, and nearly five hundred of his followers, for several days beneath the palace roof. These "halls" are still standing, but shorn of their ancient magnificence.

MONTEZUMA, the last of the Aztec Emperors.



TEMPLE OF THE SUN, MEXICO.

republican, and is vested in a president and congress, which latter consists of a senate and house of deputies, as in the United States of America. The vice-presidency has been abolished, and the alternate of the president is the chief justice of the supreme court. The senate is composed of two members from each state, elected by the legislature. The deputies are elected by popular vote, in number according to the population, the electoral ratio being 70,000 or 80,000 inhabitants. The number of deputies is about 100. Congress assembles on the 1st January, and sits until the 15th April, in each year. A council of government, consisting of delegates from the senate, sits during the recess of Congress. The legislative and executive departments of the several states are modelled after those of the federal constitution, and exercise all the rights not recognised as belonging to the national government. They manage their own internal resources, and have supreme power in all civil and criminal matters occurring in their respective courts.

½ real, 6 cents.

Mexican ¼ dollar.

Mexican ½ dollar.

Mexican dollar.

History.—The aborigines of Mexico, as far as we can learn from tradition and history, were a very wild race, who, about the year 472, were supplanted by the Tultecs, a superior tribe which came from the north. Pestilence and famine having dispersed the Tultecs, they were succeeded by the Chichemecas and Acolhuans, who also came from the north in the year 580. They were conquered by the Aztecs, who also came from the north in 1210, and planted the seeds of a mighty Indian empire. For 300 years they rapidly advanced in civilization, and on the arrival of the Spaniards, in 1519, they constituted a wealthy and powerful empire. The conquest of the country was completed by Cortez, the Spanish invader, in 1521, after perpetrating great cruelty and oppression upon the natives. The last of the Aztec kings, Montezuma, was captured by Cortez, and subsequently killed in a popular tumult. From the period of the Spanish conquest to the revolution which separated Mexico from Spain (a period of three hundred years), the country was governed by viceroys, and the native Mexicans, of whatever caste, were reduced to the condition of abject slaves. The rapacity of the viceroys and their minions, crushed the poor Mexicans to the very earth, and yet so cruel were their oppressors, that fear hushed even the trembling voice of murmuring. At length their burdens became intolerable, and at the beginning of the present century, a revolutionary spirit was evinced that assumed a tangible form in 1808, when the king of Spain abdicated the throne in favor of his son, but which was at once seized by Napoleon, on which he seated his brother Joseph. The Mexicans soon after (1810) unfurled the banner of rebellion, and a revolutionary contest was carried on for ten years, until, in 1820, it assumed new vigor and power, and resulted in the final overthrow of the Spanish government in Mexico, and the declaration of its independence. A provisional government was organized intended to be republican in

form; but through the influence of powerful friends, and the military force, Iturbide, one of the leaders of the revolution, was proclaimed emperor. His throne might have been stable, but he foolishly assumed the airs of royalty, and so disgusted the Mexican people, that a counter-revolution took place, at the head of which was the veteran, Victoria, and the youthful general, Santa Aña; and Iturbide, fearing consequences, resigned his throne, and left his country. A new constitution was formed, and was ratified on the 4th of October, 1824. From that period until the present time the history of Mexico is made up of revolutions and counter-revolutions, excited by ambitious chiefs grasping for the prize of the presidency.

CENTRAL AMERICA.

This term includes the long and comparatively narrow tract of country connecting the continents of North and South America, lying between 8° 5′ and 17° 50′ north latitude, and 80° 50′ and 94° 12′ longitude west from Greenwich, and comprises the five states of Guatimala, Honduras, Costa Rica, San Salvador, and Nicaragua. It is bounded on the north by Yucatan and the Caribbean sea, on the east by the Caribbean sea and New Grenada, and on the south and west by the Pacific ocean. The population and extent of the states of Central America are as follows:—

	Area in square miles.	Population.	Capitals.	Population.
Guatimala	28,000	850,000	New Guatimala	50,000
Honduras	81,000	280,000	Comayagua	18,000
Costa Rica	33,000	180,000	San José	20,000
San Salvador	24,000	330,000	San Salvador	40,000
Nicaragua	30,000	400,000	Leon	25,000
Total	196,000	2,040,000		

Physical Aspect.—No very distinct mountain chain traverses Central America, but an elevated plateau occupies the central parts, forming a kind of chain of communication between the Cordilleras of South America and the mountain chains of Mexico. This plateau rises much more precipitously from the Pacific than from the Atlantic side, the general slope of the country being to the northeast. The table-land rises also considerably as it proceeds northwest: in Costa Rica and Nicaragua its highest parts are of very moderate elevation; and the lake of Nicaragua, situated on a plain bounded by hills of no great height, is less than 134 feet above the level of the Pacific. In the state of Guatimala, the table-land averages perhaps 5,000 feet above the level, the loftiest summits, which are either active or extinct volcanoes, being in that republic. The water-volcano, near Guatimala, so called from its frequently emitting torrents of hot water and stones, but never fire, is 12,620 feet above the Pacific. There are two large plains—those of Nicaragua and Comayagua, besides many of lesser size, on the banks of the larger rivers and along the shores; these principally consist of extensive savannas, with rich pasturage, interspersed with clumps of trees.

Rivers, Lakes, and Bay.—All the larger rivers of Central America flow northeast and east, the proximity of the high mountain range to the Pacific permitting but a short course to those flowing west. The chief are, the Montagua, Polochic, Rio de Segovia, the San Juan, connecting the Lake of Nicaragua with the Atlantic, &c.; the banks of most of these are richly wooded. The Montagua is of considerable size, and useful for the conveyance of foreign goods into the interior of Guatimala. The Lake Nicaragua is by far the most

important body of water in Central America, and will probably form an important part of the projected water-communication between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. The other principal lakes are, the Golfo Dolce, Lake Leon or Managua, which communicates with that of Nicaragua, and Lakes Peten, Amitatan, Atitan, &c. The Bay of Honduras is the principal bay of Central America.

Climate.—The climate of Central America is much similar to that of all tropical countries; the lowlands about the coasts are unhealthy, and fevers prevail to a great extent. The temperature of the table-land varies, according to its elevation; but an equable, moderate, and agreeable temperature may be obtained there all the year round, with a perfectly healthy climate. The dry season lasts from October to the end of May; the rest of the year is entitled the wet season; but the rains, though heavy, last only during the night, and the days are fair and cloudless.

Productive Resources.—The country is rich in mineral products; the precious metals, with copper, iron, lead, nickel, tin, antimony, &c., are found in great abundance. But the vegetable productions are of far greater importance. The forests yield many valuable kinds of timber, including mahogany, cedar, logwood, &c. Other vegetable products are, aromatic and medicinal plants, fruits, sugar-cane, cocoa, cotton, indigo, coffee, tobacco, cochineal, vanilla, tamarinds, cassia, pepper, ginger, &c. Immense herds of cattle graze on the plains of Nicaragua, and Costa Rica carries on a large trade in these animals.

Chief Towns.—Beside the towns before-named, as capitals of the different states, there are, in Guatimala, Old Guatimala (which has been several times destroyed by earthquakes), Totonicapan, Chiquimula, Quesaltenango, Coban, and Salama; in Honduras, Tegusigalpa, Gracias, San Pedro, Sulaco, Omoa, Sonaguera, and Truxillo; in Costa Rica, Cartago, Esparsa, Alajuela, Eredia, and Estrella; in San Salvador, Libertad, San Vicente, San Miguel, Santa Aña, and Sonsonate; and in Nicaragua, Grenada, Nueva Segovia, Realejo, Nicaragua, and San Juan or Greytown.

Canal.—A ship-canal, designed to connect the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, through the San Juan river and Lakes Nicaragua and Leon, and to have its terminus at Realejo on the Pacific, is in progress. It is to be open to all nations. This is already a popular route of travel from ocean to ocean.

Education.—The advantages of education are enjoyed only by a comparatively few, those in the upper classes. The masses of the people are deplorably ignorant.

History.—This country was conquered by the Spaniards as early as 1524, and was erected into a Spanish generalship by Charles V., in 1527, and continued a dependency of Spain till 1821, when it was declared independent by the people, and incorporated with Mexico, which also had just thrown off the Spanish yoke. On the fall of Iturbide, it again formed itself into an independent government, under the title of the "United States of Central America." Each state had an executive government, a legislative assembly elected periodically, and local constitution for the management of its internal affairs; and a federal congress, senate, and president superintended the affairs of the five states; but in 1839 each state declared itself sovereign and independent of the others, and the union was virtually dissolved; there is, therefore, no longer a national government.

The Mosquito Territory is a strip of country lying along the shore of the bay of Honduras, under the protection of Great Britain. It is, however, claimed by Nicaragua as a part of her territory.

THE WEST INDIES.

Under this term were formerly included, not only the Caribbee and other islands in the Atlantic, near the coast of America, but also all the countries included under the name of the Spanish Main. But at present the term is restricted, so as to signify only the islands between 10° and 28° north latitude, and 60° and 85° longitude west from Greenwich. They comprise five large and about forty smaller islands, beside numerous rocky islets, called cayas, or keys, surrounded by or interspersed with coral reefs and sand-banks, which often extend to a great distance. The most generally-recognised divisions of this archipelago are as follows :—

1. The Bahamas, comprising a group of fourteen principal, and an innumerable number of smaller islands, extending in line off the coast of Florida to the island of Hayti or San Domingo.

2. The Greater Antilles, comprising the islands of Cuba, Porto Rico, Hayti or San Domingo, and Jamaica, with their dependent islands, lying nearly east and west, between the Cuba channel and the Virgin isles.

3. The Lesser Antilles, or Carribean islands, consisting of the chain extending in a long curved line, nearly north and south, from Porto Rico to the gulf of Paria, to which navigators give the name of the Windward islands, and the chain lying off the coast of Venezuela, generally known as the Leeward islands.

Physical Aspect.—Most of these islands contain isolated peaks or mountain ranges, whose summits, in the larger islands, attain an elevation of 8,000 or 9,000 feet. Several of the smaller islands are volcanic, and a number of the craters have thrown out smoke and ashes since the middle of the last century. The volcanoes of the large islands are extinct.

Climate.—The climate of these islands is, for a great part of the year, mild and pleasant, the heat being in some measure moderated by the uniform length of the nights, and by refreshing sea-breezes. The seasons are divided between the wet and the dry ; the former, occurring in May and October, is of short continuance, and during the rest of the year the sky is clear, and the nights remarkable for their brilliancy. In the intervals between the months of August and October, the West India islands are sometimes visited by terrible storms or hurricanes. Plantations, forests, and houses, are often swept away before their violence, which, happily, is of short duration.

Productive Resources.—The rich and varied productions of the West Indies give the archipelago an important position in the commercial world. The forests contain mahogany, lignum-vitæ, and other woods useful in the arts. Other important articles of food or commerce are, sugar, coffee, pimento ; the plantain and the banana ; the pine-apple, anana, yam, and sweet potato ; maize, cassava, manioc, and cocoa ; the tobacco and cotton plants ; various dyewoods and stuffs, as fustic, logwood, and cochineal ; and medicinal plants, as licorice, arrow-root, jalap, and ipecacuanha. To this list must be added all the varieties of tropical fruits : the bread-fruit, cocoa-nut, mango, paw-paw, guava, tamarind, orange, lemon, fig, cachew-nut, mammee, grenadilla, vanilla, &c. The cattle of the West Indies are inferior, and only a few of the islands contain sheep and goats. Very few horses, asses or mules are reared, and consequently great numbers of these animals are imported from the adjacent continents. Hogs are more abundant, and find a ready and plentiful supply of food in the woods.

Political Condition, Extent, and Population.—With the exception of Hayti, all the West India islands are appropriated as colonial dependencies

of European powers, and are under the surveillance of governors appointed respectively by the nations to which they belong. In the Spanish, Dutch, &c., islands, the government is of a military character, but in those belonging to the crown of Great Britain, civil constitutional governments prevail, and the institutions of the mother-country, when suitable to the condition of the colonies, are the laws of the land. The following table exhibits the area, population, capital towns, &c., of the principal of the West India islands, with the nations to which they pertain :—

Name of Island, and to whom belonging.	Area in square miles.	Population. Whites.	Colored.	Total.	Capital Towns.	Population.
INDEPENDENT :—						
Hayti	28,000	80,000	820,000	900,000	Port au Prince	18,000
GREAT BRITAIN :—						
Jamaica	6,400	35,000	325,000	360,000	Kingston	32,000
Barbadoes	166	14,950	100,050	115,000	Bridgetown	20,000
Trinidad	1,600	5,000	42,000	47.000	Port Spain	13,000
Antigua	93	1,980	35,000	36,980	St John's	15,000
Grenada	109	1,000	28,000	29,000	St. George	3,000
St. Vincent	131	1.500	27,000	28,500	Kingston	4,769
St. Christopher's	70	1,700	26,000	27,700	Basse Terre	6,500
Dominica	29	850	19,150	20,000	Roseau	5.000
St. Lucia	225	1,000	15,000	16,000	Castries	2,400
Tobago	140	400	14,600	15,000	Scarborough	3,000
Nevis	20	800	11,000	11,800	Charlestown	1,800
Montserrat	47	500	8,000	8,500	Plymouth	——
Virgin Islands	90	280	6,720	7,000	Tortola	——
Anguilla	30	369	3,235	3,604		
Bahamas	5,500	4,650	15,350	20,000	Nassau	7,000
Barbuda	90	——	——	1,500		
SPAIN :—						
Cuba	54,000	425,770	482,992	908,762	Havana	135,000
Porto Rico	4,140	127,399	229,687	357,086	St. John's	30,000
FRANCE :—						
Guadaloupe	675	12,324	107,339	119,663	Basse Terre	12,414
Martinique	370	13,417	106,299	119,716	St. Pierre	12,000
Mariegalante	90	1,938	10,347	12,285	Basse Terre	——
Deseada	25					
DENMARK :—						
Santa Cruz	100	2,500	31,500	34,000	Christianstadt	5,000
St. Thomas	40	2,000	10,000	12,000	St Thomas	10,000
St. John	40	150	2,850	3,000		
HOLLAND :—						
St. Eustatia	22	——	——	12,350	The Bay	6,000
Curaçoa	600	3,000	10,000	13,000	Willelmstadt	7,000
St. Martin's	90	——	——	3,500		
Saba	8	——	——	5,000		
SWEDEN :—						
St. Bartholomew	60	3,000	12,000	15,000	Gustavia	2,000
VENEZUELA :—						
Margarita	354	2,000	13,000	15,000	Assumpcion	——
Total	103,354	743,477	2,512,119	3,277,946		

COMMERCE.—The colonial state of the West India islands acts unfavorably on their prosperity, and retards that development of their resources that would otherwise be brought about; nevertheless, even in a dependent state, their commerce is immense, and a source of wealth to those engaged in it, and of revenue to the governments to which they respectively belong.

HISTORY.—The discovery of America by Columbus has been noticed on a previous page. The first land seen by this great navigator on the 11th of October, 1492, was one of the Bahamas, which he gratefully named San Salvador. Cuba was the next island of importance seen, then Hayti (the native name), or San Domingo, which he termed Hispaniola. In September, 1493, Columbus discovered St. Christopher, Dominica, Mariegalante, Guadaloupe, Montserrat, Porto Rico, and other islands. In 1498, on his third voyage, he discovered Trinidad, Tobago, Grenada, St. Vincent, and Margarita. Nearly all the islands were seen by Columbus in the course of his several voyages; and he gave them the name of West Indies, thinking he had reached the islands on the coast of India.

During the middle of the seventeenth century, the West India islands were infested by a band of pirates termed "buccaneers," whose exploits have rendered them notorious, and whose efforts were chiefly directed against the Spanish settlements, in consequence of the Spaniards having expelled from St. Christopher's a body of English and French planters, who at first employed themselves in hunting wild cattle, and trading; but when pursued to Tortuga by the Spaniards, who barbarously murdered their women and children, the buccaneers assailed the Spanish towns and ships, plundered, burnt, and destroyed in every direction, and took ample vengeance on their foes. After the peace of Ryswick, in 1697, the freebooters' power was broken, and their union dissolved. The West Indies, although granted in full title to the monarch of Spain by the pope, were occupied by various European nations, without much reference to the rights accorded by the papal decree, and with still less regard for the numerous aborigines settled on the islands. The precise period when Europeans commenced colonizing the islands is not accurately recorded. Hayti had its first settlement A. D. 1496; Jamaica, about 1509; Cuba, 1511; Porto Rico, 1514; Trinidad, 1595, all by the Spaniards; Curaçoa and St. Eustatia (Dutch), 1600; St. Cbristopher, Nevis, and Barbadoes, 1624; Montserrat (English), and Tobago (Dutch), 1632; Guadaloupe, Martinique, and St. Lucia, by the French, 1635; Virgin Isles (Dutch), and St. Bartholomew (French), 1648; Grenada (French), 1650; Bahamas, 1672; Antigua and St. Vincent (English), 1674.

HAYTI.

Hayti, second only to Cuba, in point of size and population, forms one of the most interesting of the West India islands. It lies between 17° 40′ and 19° 58′ north latitude, and 68° 24′ and 74° 35′ longitude west from Greenwich, with Cuba and Jamaica on the west end, and Porto Rico on the east.

Physical Aspect.—The surface of Hayti (as its name implies*) is generally mountainous; but there are some extensive plains, especially on the east. A great mountain-knot, the Cibao, occupies the centre of the country, from which two parallel chains, running east and west, extend through the island in its entire length. The loftiest summits of the Cibao are considerably more than 6,000 feet in height. In the southwest is an additional mountain chain, which stretches west to the extremity of the long and narrow peninsula terminating in Cape Tiburon. Between this peninsula and the northwest promontory of the island is the spacious bay of Gonaive, including the island of the same name, and having at its head Fort Républicain (or Port au Prince). Tortuga is opposite the northwest promontory. The shores of Hayti are in general bold, except on the east, where low and swampy islands prevail. They are almost everywhere surrounded by small uninhabited islands and dangerous reefs, but they have, notwithstanding, many excellent harbors, especially along the north and west coasts.

Rivers and Lakes.—Hayti is in most parts profusely watered; it has numerous rivers, the largest being the Yaque, Yuna, Nieve, and Artibonite, which disembogue on the north, east, south, and west coasts. These rivers are navigable for a great part of their course; they are generally deep, and two or three of them are, near their mouths, of considerable width. Three lakes of considerable size exist at no great distance from the south coast of Henri-

* Hayti is the original Caribbee name of the island, and signifies, the mountainous country. Columbus named it Hispaniola; and it has also been known under the name of San Domingo.

quillo; the largest is about fifty miles in circuit, and has salt water, while the adjacent lake of Azney is fresh.

Climate.—The climate is tropical, and subject to the influences of locality. The low lands are unhealthy, but the more elevated regions are bland and balmy. The year, as elsewhere between the tropics, is divided between the wet and dry seasons. The change of the seasons is accompanied by stormy weather; but hurricanes are not so frequent as in most of the other Antilles, nor are earthquakes common, though in 1770 a convulsion of that kind destroyed Port au Prince.

Chief Towns.—Port au Prince (the capital), San Domingo, Cape Haytien, Aux Cayes, Jeremie, and Gonaives, are the principal towns of Hayti.

Productive Resources.—The principal productions of the island are, cattle, coffee, the sugar-cane, and cotton; mahogany, logwood, lignum-vitæ, honey, wax, and fruits, are also important articles of commerce.

History.—Hayti was discovered by Columbus in 1495, and was soon conquered by the Spaniards, who treated the natives with great cruelty. In 1691, Spain ceded one half of the island to France, and so prosperous did that portion of it become; that in 1789 its produce and commerce were equal to all the other West India islands. In 1791, the slaves revolted and drove out the French. under circumstances of great cruelty and slaughter. After various conflicts a military republic was formed, under the title of the republic of Hayti.* Hitherto the Spanish section had remained quiet, but in 1821 claimed to be independent, and in 1822 was compelled by the president of Hayti to annex itself to that republic. The whole island thus became a consolidated government, and so remained until the death of Boyer, when the political connection was dissolved, and the Spanish portion again formed itself into the independent "*Republic of Dominica*," and has been able to sustain itself ever since against the forces of Hayti. Soulouque, a mulatto, born a slave, was the last president. On the 26th of August, 1849, he caused himself to be proclaimed emperor, under the title of Faustin I., and the republic was changed into a monarchy.

THE BRITISH WEST INDIES.

Jamaica.—This is the largest and most important of the English West India colonies. It lies between 17° 35′ and 18° 30′ north latitude, and 76° and 78° 40′ longitude west from Greenwich.

Physical Aspect.—Jamaica is somewhat of an oval shape, with an elevated ridge called the Blue mountains (towering in some places to nearly 8,000 feet above the level of the sea), running longitudinally through the island east and west, and occasionally intersected by other high ridges, traversing from north to south; approaching the sea on the south coast in gigantic spines, of sharp ascent—difficult of access, and clothed with dense and sombre forests;—on the north declining into lovely mounds and undulating hills, covered with groves of pimento, and all the exquisite verdure of the tropics,—the *coup-d'oeil* presenting a splendid panorama of high mountains. embosomed in clouds, and vast savannas or plains, hills, and vales, rivers, bays, and creeks. The middle part, called Pedro's Cockpit, is spread, for an extent of many miles, with an infinite number of round-topped hills, whose surface, covered with loose limestone, or honeycomb rock, is clothed with fine cedar and other trees, of enor-

* Toussaint L'Ouverture, who had been a slave, gained an ascendency, and, for a brief period, maintained a government. He was beguiled by the French, however, and, being taken to France was left to die in prison. A French army of 20,000 men was now sent to conquer the island; but the enterprise proved abortive.

mous bulk; the dales or cockpits meandering between these hummucks contain a rich soil, of great depth, where the succulent Guinea grass forms a perfect carpet of ever-verdant beauty.

Rivers.—The island is well-watered. There are about 100 rivers, none of which are navigable, except for boats. Black river, on the southwest coast, is the largest, but this is only available for flat-bottomed boats and canoes for about thirty miles. Like all the other streams, its current is very rapid. The other chief rivers on the south side are, the Rio Cobre and Rio Minho; and on the north, Marthabræ, White, Ginger, Great river, &c.

Harbors.—Jamaica has sixteen principal secure havens, besides thirty bays, roads, or shipping stations, which afford good anchorage.

Climate.—From the geographical position of the island, so near the equator, the climate in the low grounds is necessarily very hot, with little variation throughout the year; it differs in intensity, however, with the elevation. The medium of temperature of the year near Kingston ranges between 70° and 80° Fahrenheit. As the country is ascended of course the heat decreases; and at an elevation of 4,200 feet the average range is from 55° to 65°. The seasons are divided into four: the vernal and rainy season in April and May; the hot and dry, June, July, and August; the hurricane and rainy, September, October, and November; and the serene and cool, December, January, February, and March.

Counties and Chief Towns.—Jamaica is divided into three counties—Middlesex, Surrey, and Cornwall. St. Jago de la Vega, or Spanish Town, is the capital, and Kingston the chief mart of commerce. The other principal towns are, Port Royal, Port Antonio, Falmouth, Maroon Town, Montego Bay, Lucca or Fort Charlotte, and Savannah le Mar.

Productive Resources.—The great staples of Jamaica are, sugar, coffee, indigo, cotton, and rum. The cultivated vegetables of Europe arrive at great perfection. The native and exotic grasses thrive here luxuriantly, and all the fruits of the tropics are produced in abundance.

Commerce.—The trade of Jamaica is extensive. The exports amount to nearly $20,000,000, and the imports to about $3,000,000, annually. The principal exports are, sugar, molasses, rum, coffee, spices, and tropical fruits; the imports, British manufactures and colonial produce.

Government.—The local government of Jamaica is vested in a governor or captain-general, appointed by the crown, aided by an executive and legislative council, and house of assembly. The system of jurisprudence is identical with that of England, only differing as affected by local and conventional interests.

History.—Jamaica was discovered by Christopher Columbus, on the 2d May, 1494, during his second expedition. In 1503, the Spaniards first began to colonize Jamaica. In 1558, the aborigines had entirely perished, and slaves were then introduced. In 1655, Jamaica was conquered from the Spaniards by a large armament, fitted out by Oliver Cromwell, and commanded by General Venables and Admiral Penn. From that period to the present time Jamaica has remained in the possession of Great Britain. The institution of slavery, which for a long series of years existed, not only in Jamaica, but in all the British colonies, was, in 1834, by act of parliament, for ever abolished. To indemnify the slaveholders, £20,000,000 was granted by parliament to be apportioned among them, in accordance with the number and value of their slaves.

The Caymans.—These are three small islands, which are dependencies of Jamaica, in 19° 20′ north latitude, about 200 miles north-northwest from that island. Grand Caymans, the most remote, and the only one inhabited, contains about 1,000 acres. The inhabitants are employed catching and feeding turtle for the market. Columbus discovered these islands on his return from Porto

Bello to Hispaniola, and observing the coast swarming with turtle, like ridges of rocks, he called them Los Tortugas.

Trinidad.—The island of Trinidad, separated only by the gulf of Paria from the coast of South America, is situated between 90° 20′ and 10° 51′ north latitude, and 60° 30′ and 61° 20′ longitude west from Greenwich.

Physical Aspect.—The mountain chains run from west to east, and may be regarded as continuations of the chains on the opposite coast of Venezuela, from which this island has most probably been detached by some convulsion of nature. Along the northern shore a bold range of mountains rises to the height of 3,000 feet, broken into the most rugged and abrupt forms, and clothed to the summit with forest trees. Toward the south extends a chain of hills of less elevation, and of a more pastoral character, while the centre of the island is occupied by a group of flat or round-topped hills, dividing it, as it were, into two extensive valleys, which are occasionally intersected by a succession of hill and dale. The greater part of the interior of this island is uncultivated, and, indeed, in a considerable degree unexplored. The low grounds are in parts marshy, while the more elevated portions are, for the most part, covered with a dense vegetation of forest and underwood. The accounts best entitled to credit represent the island as being naturally extremely fertile. The soil is, in general, deep, stiff, and tenacious. It is estimated that only about one thirtieth part of this island is incapable of cultivation.

Rivers and Harbors.—The whole island is well-watered by numerous streams in every direction. The principal are on the west coast: the Caroni, navigable for six leagues from its mouth; and on the east the Oropuche and Nariva, which last is said to be navigable for vessels of 250 tons to a league from its source. The north and east coasts are not well furnished with harbors; which is unfortunate, as the winds blow from those quarters for three fourths of the year. But the west coast has numerous bays and inlets; and the gulf of Paria is an extensive inland sea, in which ships of all sizes may ride securely, and anchor anywhere without the smallest risk and in any convenient depth of water.

Climate.—This island is exempt from those destructive droughts so common to the other West India islands. The dry season commences in December, and ends in May. The nights are generally cool and pleasant.

Chief Towns and Ports.—Puerto d'Espana, or Port Spain, is the capital, and is one of the finest towns in the West Indies. Other ports are, Port Royal, Maquerbe, Los Cuevos, Balandra bay, Guias Neck, Mayaro bay, and Guaiguaire.

Productive Resources.—The principal productions of Trinidad are, sugar, cocoa, coffee, cotton, and indigo. Cocoa is grown more extensively here than in any other of the British Antilles, and is of superior quality. Here are also all the fruits and vegetables of the adjacent tropical climates. The minerals found in Trinidad are, iron, copper, arsenic, plumbago, sulphur, and bituminous coal. A remarkable mineral phenomenon is a lake of asphaltum, three miles in circumference. The asphaltum obtained from it, mingled with grease or oil, has been found useful in protecting the bottoms of ships from rot.

Government.—The administrative powers are vested in a lieutenant-governor, appointed by the crown, and an executive and legislative committee, half of which is composed of official persons, and half taken from among the people.

History.—Trinidad was discovered by Columbus, in 1498, who found it inhabited by Caribs, and was taken possession of by the Spaniards in 1588, an event followed by the almost total extermination of the Indians. Raleigh visited it in 1595. The French took it in 1696, but soon afterward

restored it to the Spaniards, who held it till captured by the English, under Abercrombie, in 1797, and it has since that period remained a British colony.

The Bahama Islands.—The Bahamas consist of several hundred islands of various magnitudes, extending in a southeast and northwest direction, between Hayti and Florida, nearly 600 miles, from Turk's island, 21° 23′ to the Mantanilla reef, in 27° 50′ north latitude, and from 71° 5′ to 79° 5′ longitude west from Greenwich. They are mostly of coral formation, low, flat, and but scantily covered with soil, and the greater number of them uninhabited.

Principal Islands.—The principal islands forming the group are, New Providence and keys; Andross island, Green and Grassy keys, Grand Bahama and the Berry islands; Great and Little Abaco and keys, Harbor island, Eleuthera, Royal island and keys; St. Salvador and Little island; Watling's island and Rum key; Great and Little Exuma and keys; Ragged island and keys; Long island; Crooked island, Fortune island, and Acklin's island; Great and Little Heneagua; Mayaguana, French, and Attwood's keys; the Caicoss Turk's island, Key Sal, and Anguilla.

New Providence.—The most important island of the group, from its harbor and situation with respect to the Florida channel, is New Providence; and, as this is the residence of the governor, the seat of the legislature, and the headquarters of the troops, and as it differs from the other islands in no essential degree, we shall confine ourselves to an outline of its geographical features and general appearance, deeming it unnecessary to dwell upon any of the others. It lies in latitude 25° 29′ north, and in longitude 76° 34′ west, and extends about 21 miles from east to west, and 7 miles from north to south. It is nearly covered with large trees and brushwood, and much intersected with marshes and lagunes. A range of slightly-elevated hills runs along a part of the island, at a very short distance from the sea; and upon the face of this ridge stands Nassau, the capital, and the seat of government. Another range of hills runs parallel to the former, at the distance of about two and a half miles; the whole of the intervening space forms an extensive marsh.

Climate.—The climate varies very considerably, both in temperature and salubrity, according to the geographical position and local peculiarities of the the islands. At New Providence the weather, during the cold season, which extends from November to May, is extremely pleasant; the thermometer in the shade being generally from 60° to 70°, the midday heat tempered by a constant breeze; and the evenings cool and agreeable. From May to November the heat increases or decreases, as the sun advances or retires from the tropic of Cancer, and during this period the range of the thermometer is from 75° to 85°, seldom rising above 90°. The spring rains commence about May, and continue for a few weeks: those of autumn commence in September, and generally terminate in November or December. During the autumnal months fogs are very frequent in the mornings and evenings; but from December to May the weather is generally fine, clear, and dry.

Productive Resources.—The chief articles of produce are, Indian and Guinea corn, potatoes, yams, beans, peas, pineapples, salt, dyewoods, cotton, ochres, casa, pumpkins, arrowroot, onions (of which a great quantity are raised), oranges, limes, and lemons. There are about 12,000 acres of pasturage, which give support to horses, horned stock, sheep and goats, and swine.

Commerce.—The principal article of export is salt, amounting to half a million of bushels annually. Other articles of export are sponge, dye and other woods, ochres, arrowroot, lemons, oranges, &c.

Population.—The population is about 20,000. The inhabitants are divided into two classes of residents and *wreckers*. The latter are mostly employed in rescuing vessels, with their crews and cargoes, shipwrecks being frequent in

these intricate, shallow, and dangerous seas. They sail in small, flat-bottomed sloops, admirably fitted for the waters they navigate. They are excellent sailors; are familiar with all the keys, shoals, and breakers; and encounter danger with alacrity and courage. Their great places of rendezvous are, the Florida gulf, the Hole-in-the-Wall, and the Hog-sties. Their vessels are very numerous. They are licensed by the governor, and receive a salvage on all property rescued from the waves.

History.—New Providence was settled in 1629 by the English, who kept possession of it till 1641, when they were expelled by the Spaniards, who murdered the governor, and committed many acts of barbarous cruelty. It was recolonized in 1666 by the English a second time; but they were again expelled by the French and Spaniards in 1703, and from that period it became a rendezvous for pirates, till formally ceded to the English in 1783, in whose possession, with the other islands, it has since remained.

Tobago or **Tobasco.**—This is a small island to the north of Trinidad; it has a fine climate, and fertile soil. This island was discovered by Columbus, in 1498; it was colonized by the Dutch, and next by the Courlanders. Afterward it came to the French, who ceded it to Great Britain in 1763.

Grenada.—This is another small island, whose capital, Georgetown, has a good harbor. It was first discovered by Columbus, in 1498, settled by the French in 1650, and taken by the British in 1762.

St. Vincent.—This is a rugged and mountainous island, and is well-watered. It has been exposed to great ravages by the eruptions of a volcanic mountain, called the *Souffrière*, or *Sulphur Mountain*. The island was discovered by Columbus, in 1498, at which time the natives were numerous, consisting of two races—one of Caribs, and the other resembling negroes, supposed to be the descendants of Africans wrecked on the coast. The island was colonized by the French, but came to the English in 1763. The natives revolted, and 5,000 were removed to Honduras.

Barbadoes.—This is the most easterly of the West India islands; it has a fertile soil. The capital, Bridgetown, is a flourishing place. This island had no aboriginal population, though it appears the Caribs occasionally visited it. Its discovery is uncertain. The English took possession of it in 1605, and colonized it in 1624. During the civil wars in England, about the year 1650, the population rapidly increased. Although afflicted at different times with earthquakes, pestilence, insurrection, and conflagration, the colony increased, and the island is now one of great importance.

St. Lucia.—This fine island has a healthy and agreeable climate, and the soil yields cocoa, fustic, sugar, and coffee. It was first discovered by the English, in 1635, but they were driven away by the Caribs. A settlement was effected by the French in 1650. After having changed hands several times between the English and French, it finally was taken by the English, in 1804, and has since remained subject to the British crown.

Dominica.—The island of Dominica contains several volcanic mountains, and its forests produce a variety of ornamental woods. Roseau, the capital, has a fine harbor. Six miles from here, on the top of a high mountain, is a fresh-water lake, with an area of several acres, in some parts unfathomable. This island was discovered by Columbus, in 1493. It was for a long time claimed by both France and Spain, till the English gained possession of it in

1759. It was taken afterward by the French, and belonged to them till 1783, when it was restored to the British, and has since remained in their possession.

Antigua.—This fertile island contains a great number of excellent harbors. It was discovered by Columbus, in 1493. The first settlement was made in 1632, by the English. In 1666, the French laid it waste, but it was resettled in 1674, by the English, in whose possession it has since remained.

Barbuda.—This is a flat, fertile island, producing corn, pepper, and tobacco. It belongs to the Codrington family, and has a proprietary government—the only one in the West Indies. It was settled from St. Christopher's, soon after that island was colonized.

Montserrat.—This island is mountainous, with a light, volcanic soil, and healthy climate. It produces excellent coffee and sugar. It was discovered by Columbus, in 1493, colonized by the English in 1632, and confirmed to them in 1713.

St. Christopher's or **St. Kitt's**, called by the Caribs Licmuiga, produces sugar, cotton, coffee, &c. It is healthy, but subject to earthquakes. It was discovered by Columbus, in 1493, and confirmed to Great Britain, by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713.

Nevis.—This delightful little island is separated from St. Christopher's by a strait about ten miles broad, and full of shoals. It is a conical hill, with a marshy, fertile soil, and healthy climate. It produces sugar, molasses, and rum. It was discovered by the English, and settled by them in 1628.

Anguilla.—Anguilla, called Snake island, from its crooked form, is flat, chalky, and not fertile, producing cotton, sugar, maize, and provisions. It has a salt lake, furnishing salt. It was colonized by the English in 1650, and has since been held by them.

Tortola is one of the Virgin islands, which belong to the English, Danes, and Spaniards. These are all small. Tortola is mountainous, with a thin soil, producing cotton, fruits, sugar, molasses, &c. A few other of the Virgin isles belong to Great Britain. They were discovered by Columbus, in 1433, and named in honor of the 10,000 virgins in the Roman ritual. The Dutch buccaneers were the first occupants of these islands, having settled at Tortola in 1648. A stronger party of English buccaneers drove them out in 1666, and they were shortly afterward annexed to the Leeward government.

COTTON CULTIVATION.

THE SPANISH WEST INDIES.

Cuba.—This is the largest and most important of the West India islands. It lies between 19° 40′ and 23° north latitude, and extends from 74° 15′ to 84° 57′ longitude west from Greenwich. Its figure is long and narrow, approaching to that of a crescent, with its convex side toward the north. Its western portion lying between the peninsulas of Florida and Yucatan, leaves two entrances into, and, in a military point of view, is the key to, the gulf of Mexico The greatest length of the island, following the curve, is about 800 miles, and its breadth, which is very irregular, varies from 25 to 130 miles.

Physical Aspect.—Mountain chains traverse the whole length of the island, giving off lateral ridges on both sides, with extensive intervening valleys, well-watered by numberless fine streams, and fertile beyond exaggeration. Savannas and plains stretch from the mountains to the sea, and present a scene of cultivated fields clothed in perennial verdure, and producing all the staples and fruits of tropical countries. During the whole year vegetation is strong, and no season is without its peculiar fruits. So prolific indeed is the soil, that two, and sometimes three crops of grain are produced annually.

Climate.—In the western part of the island the climate is such as is to be expected along the northern limit of the torrid zone, presenting many inequalities of temperature, from the near neighborhood of the American continent. The seasons are spoken of as the rainy and dry, but the line of demarkation is not very clearly defined. The warmest months are July and August, when the mean temperature is about 84° Fahrenheit. The coldest months are December and January, when the thermometer ranges about 10° less than at the equator. It never snows, but hail and frost are not uncommon. Hurricanes are not so common as in other West India islands. Earthquakes are not unfrequent.

Chief Towns.—Havana, the capital, is situated on the northwest of the island. It is one of the most flourishing cities of the New World. Havana is renowned for its harbor. The entrance is narrow, but deep, without bar or obstruction of any kind, and expands into a magnificent bay. Vessels of the largest dimensions ride safely upon its waters. Other important towns are, Santiago de Cuba, Matanzas, Puerto Principe, Neuvitas, Cardenas, Trinidad, Cienfuegos, Manzanillo, Bayamo, Holguin, El Cobre, and Baracoa.

Productive Resources.—The principal articles of export are, tobacco, coffee, sugar, wax, hides, and fruits. The common cereal or bread grasses are cultivated with success, and the various tropical plants are abundant. The mountains are rich in minerals, particularly iron, copper, silver, and gold.

Commerce.—The exports of Cuba amount to about $25,000,000 annually, and its imports to about $10,000,000. More than one half of the commerce of Cuba is with the United States.

History.—Cuba was discovered by Columbus, October 28, 1492, and was first called Juan, in honor of Prince John, son of Ferdinand and Isabella; afterward Ferdinandina, in memory of the king; then successively Santiago and Ave Maria, in deference to the patron saint of Spain and the Virgin; and by Spanish geographers, *La lengua de pajaro*, as descriptive of its form. The name Cuba was that in use among the aborigines at the time of its discovery. In 1511, the Spaniards began their settlements here; and in a few years they exterminated nearly all the natives. Havana was founded early in the sixteenth century, and soon became a thriving commercial place. This city was for a long period the chief mart of the Spanish West India trade, and was repeatedly attacked by enemies. The buccaneers laid it under contribution in the sixteenth century. The most memorable capture of the place was by the British, in

1762, when the conquerors obtained a booty of $15,000,000. Havana was restored to Spain in 1762. Since this time, Cuba has remained in the possession of that power. Its fertility renders it invaluable as a source of revenue to the mother country. The Creole portion of the inhabitants are dissatisfied with the government; and relying upon this, in 1850, a band of about a thousand men, led by a Cuban exile, named Lopez, sailed from New Orleans, for the purpose of invading and revolutionizing the island. A party of about 400 landed at Cardenas in June, but were soon forced to depart. A similar attempt in July, 1851, was wholly broken up; and General Lopez and many of his men were executed. That a desire exists to free their beautiful island from the oppression of the Spanish rule, which will ultimately compel Spain to relinquish control over it, and establish it as an independent nation, or bring it into the American Union, can not be doubted.

Porto Rico.—Porto Rico (Spanish, Puerto Rico), the smallest and most eastern of the great Antilles, is situated between 17° 55′ and 18° 30′ north latitude, and 65° 40′ and 67° 20′ longitude west from Greenwich. It is about 100 miles long, and 38 broad.

Physical Aspect.—A mountain chain runs east and west through the centre of the island, the highest summit of which is about 3,000 feet. The surface of the island, which is finely diversified, is well-watered, and the soil is generally rich and fertile.

Rivers, Bays, &c.—Numerous rivers having their sources in the mountains, flow on either side into the sea, some of which are navigable for two or three leagues from their mouths for schooners and coasting vessels. The coast line is indented with numerous bays and creeks, some of which form excellent harbors for ships of large burthen.

Islands.—Several small islands, lying contiguous to Porto Rico, belong to Spain, namely, Bieque or Crab, Serpent, Great and Little Passage, the Tropic keys, and several others.

Climate.—The climate is supposed to be less unhealthy, and better adapted to foreigners, than in most of the Antilles: it varies widely, however, in different parts; the northern coast being especially subject to heavy rains, and the southern to droughts. Violent hurricanes often do immense damage.

Chief Towns.—San Juan de Porto Rico is the capital of the island. The harbor has a striking resemblance to that of Havana, to which it is but little inferior. The other towns of Porto Rico are, Mayaguez, Aguadilla, Arecibo, Ponce, and Guayama.

Productive Resources.—The staples of Porto Rico are sugar, coffee, and tobacco. Other products are, wax, honey, hides, and the tropical fruits. No minerals are found, and no manufactures exist.

Commerce.—The imports and exports of Porto Rico amount to about five millions each annually, about one fourth of which is with the United States.

Government.—The government, laws, and institutions, are nearly similar to those established by Spain in the rest of her transatlantic colonies.

History.—Columbus discovered this island in 1493, at which period it is said (though not on very good grounds) to have had a population of 600,000, all of whom were, in no very long time thereafter, exterminated by the Spaniards. In the latter part of the 17th century it was taken by the English; but from the prevalence of dysentery among the troops, they were soon after obliged to abandon it, since which time it has remained in the hands of Spain. A revolution broke out in 1820, but was suppressed in 1823: the object of the people was separation from the mother-country, and an independent existence. All, however, is now quiet, and a spirit of improvement has taken the place of revolutionary ideas.

THE FRENCH WEST INDIES.

Previous to the Revolution, the possessions of France in the West Indies were more valuable than those of any other nation. The exports from Hayti alone amounted to $25,000,000 annually. That valuable island is now entirely lost to her. During her war with England all her islands were captured. By the peace of 1815, England relinquished some of the captured West India islands, and at the present period, the French government owns only the retroceded islands of Guadaloupe and its dependencies, Martinique, and the north side of St. Martin's. These, with three small islands at the north, mentioned on a previous page, and the colony of Cayenne, in Guyana, comprise the entire French colonial possessions on or near the American continent. Slavery was tolerated in these islands until the establishment of the republic in France, in 1848, when the immediate and absolute emancipation of slaves in all the French colonies was proclaimed.

Guadaloupe.—This island is situated between 15° 58′ and 16° 13′ north latitude, and 61° 15′ and 61° 55′ longitude west from Greenwich. It is divided into two parts by the river Salee or Salt river, which crosses the isthmus by which its western and eastern portions are united. The western, called Basse-Terre, contains a chain of lofty Rocky volcanic mountains, running through its centre. Its plains are copiously watered, and fruitful. The eastern division, called Grande-Terre, differs remarkably in its features from Basse-Terre. It is almost a level plain, with only a few scattered hills, destitute of woods, and labors under a deficiency of water. The only towns worthy of notice in Guadaloupe are, Basse-Terre, the capital, Capis-Terre, and Point-à-Pitre, the latter of which has an excellent harbor. Point-à-Pitre was, a few years since, almost entirely destroyed by an earthquake. Guadaloupe and adjoining islands were discovered by Columbus, in 1493. The French took possession of them in 1635. Guadaloupe has, on several occasions, been captured by the English, and was occupied by British troops from 1810 till 1815, when it was restored to the French.

Dependencies of Guadaloupe.—These are, Les Saintes, Deseada, Mariegalante, and a portion of the island of St. Martin's. The first-named, Les Saintes, consist of three small islands, situated between Guadaloupe and Mariegalante. Deseada or Desirade is ten miles long, and five broad. It lies twelve miles northeast of Point Chateau, the eastern extremity of Guadaloupe. Mariegalante is of a circular form, fourteen miles in diameter. It is situated fifteen miles east of Guadaloupe, and is traversed from east to west by a chain of hills, which, like those of Guadaloupe, abound in timber. It is very fertile, and produces large quantities of sugar, coffee, cotton, &c. St. Martin's is one of the Virgin islands, and belongs partly to the French and partly to the Dutch. The island was first colonized by Spaniards, but they abandoned it in 1650; after which it became an object of contention between the French and Dutch, who subsequently divided it between them.

Martinique.—This island lies between 14° 24′ and 14° 52′ north latitude, and 60° 46′ and 61° 15′ longitude west from Greenwich. The surface of Martinique is generally broken into hillocks, and in the centre rise three lofty mountains, the streams descending from which copiously water the island. The highest of these mountains, the Montagne Pelée, is 4,429 feet in height. They are all extinct volcanoes. The climate of Martinique is healthy, and the heat

is tempered by the sea and land breeze. The productive resources of Martinique are pretty much the same as those of the West India islands generally. The great staple is sugar. Its imports and exports average about $4,000,000 each in value annually. Port Royal, the capital, (population, 11,000), St. Pierre (population, 15,000), and La Trinité, (population, 6,000), are the only towns worthy of mention. Martinique was discovered in 1493, and settled by the French in 1635. It was captured by the English in 1794, but restored the following year. It was again taken by the English in 1794, who restored it in 1802; and again taken in 1807, and restored in 1815. The empress Josephine and her first husband, Beauharnois, were natives of this island.

THE DUTCH WEST INDIES.

The colonial possessions of the Dutch in the West Indies consist only of a few small, but somewhat important islands. They are, Curaçoa, St. Eustatius, Saba, the southern part of St. Martin'a, and two smaller islands.

St. Eustatius is cultivated with great care, and abounds particularly with tobacco; also in cattle and poultry, of which it affords a surplus to the neighboring islands. The capital is well-fortified, and forms a species of entrepôt of both regular and contraband trade.

Saba, only twelve miles in circuit, and destitute of a harbor, is a pleasant island, but of no commercial value.

St. Martin's.—The Dutch share with France the small island of St. Martin's, valuable almost solely for its salt-works.

Curaçoa is a larger island, far to the southwest of the others, and only about seventy miles distant from Venezuela. It is about thirty miles long and ten broad; but the greater part of its surface is arid and unfertile, and its importance was chiefly derived from the contraband trade, which its situation enabled it to carry on, while the continent was exclusively possessed by Spain, and studiously shut against the vessels of other countries. Since Colombia became independent, and threw open her ports to all nations, Curaçoa has sunk into a secondary station. Williamstadt, its capital, however, with a fine harbor, has still a considerable trade, and a population of 7,000.

Buen Ayre, and Oruba, two smaller islands, one on either side, also belong to the Dutch. Their inhabitants are chiefly cattle-breeders.

THE DANISH AND SWEDISH WEST INDIES.

Danish Isles.—The Danish colonial possessions in the West Indies comprise the three small islands of Santa Cruz or St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John's.

Santa Cruz.—This island, the most southerly of the Virgin islands, is situated in 17° 45′ north latitude, and 64° 40′ longitude west from Greenwich. The northern portion is traversed by a chain of hills, but the island is generally level, and its soil is extremely fertile. During a portion of the year the rivulets are dried up, and water is scarce and bad, and climate unhealthy. It is pro-

ductive, in proportion to its extent, in the usual West India articles. The value of its sugar amounts to a million and a half of dollars annually. Its capital and principal town is Christianstadt. Santa Cruz was discovered by Columbus, in 1493. The Dutch, English, French, Spanish, and Danes, alternately possessed it till 1814, when it was finally ceded to Denmark.

St. Thomas.—This island lies in latitude 18° 20′ north, and longitude 65° west from Greenwich. Its surface is mountainous, and soil less fertile than that of Santa Cruz. St. Thomas has long been, and still continues to be, one of the principal emporiums in the West Indies. It owes this distinction partly to its convenient situation, partly to its spacious and safe harbor at St. Thomas, on the south side of the island, and partly and principally to the moderation of the import duties, which vary from 1 to $1\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. St. Thomas has, in consequence, become a dépôt for the supply of the neighboring islands; goods being sent to it to be warehoused till opportunity offers for conveying them to their final destination. The great articles of importation are, manufactured goods, provisions, lumber, &c.

St. John's.—This island is situated about six miles east of St. Thomas. Its soil is fertile, and its productions are, sugar, coffee, tobacco, &c.

St. Bartholomew.—This is the only colonial possession of the Swedes in the West Indies. It lies in 17° 53′ north latitude, and 62° 54′ longitude west from Greenwich. Its superficial area is about sixty square miles. Its products are, sugar, tobacco, &c. Its trade is considerable with the United States, where it is generally called "St. Barts."

Margarita.—This island belongs to Venezuela, and is situated in 11° 10′ north latitude, and 64° 10′ longitude west from Greenwich. The coast-lands are arid and barren; but the interior is comparatively fertile, producing maize, bananas, and various fruits, with sugar, coffee, cocoa, and other West India products, though not in sufficient quantities for the demands of the inhabitants. A good deal of poultry, and other live stock, is reared, and exported to the continent; and Margarita has an active fishery, and some salt-works. It was formerly much celebrated for its pearl-fishery; but this has greatly declined, and the pearls now found are said to be of inferior size and quality. The pearl-fishery was principally conducted at the rocky island of Coche, between Margarita and the main land. The inhabitants have some manufactures of cotton stockings and hammocks, of very good quality. Assumpcion, the capital, and residence of the governor, in the centre of the island, is pretty well built. There are three ports, the principal one of which is Pampatar, on the southeast side of the island, where are fortifications. It was discovered by Columbus, in 1498. It formerly belonged to the Spanish, and was the scene of several battles between them and the Columbians, the latter being finally successful.

OTHER ISLANDS IN THE NORTH ATLANTIC.

The Bermudas.—The Bermudas, or Somers' isles, exceeding 300 in number, lie in the Atlantic ocean, in latitude 32° 20′ north, longitude 64° 50′ west, about 600 miles east of South Carolina, the nearest point of North America, and contains 12,424 acres, and a population of 8,450.

Physical Aspect.—The surface of these islands is very irregular, seldom presenting any lofty elevations, the highest land not exceeding 200 feet. The principal islands (St. George's, Ireland, St. David, Somerset, Paget, Longbird, and Smith's), together with the minor islands, lie in such a manner as to form several deep and capacious bays. St. George's, the main island, Somerset and Ireland, form a chain, with very little interruption, for about thirty miles long, seldom exceeding in breadth two miles (resembling a shepherd's crook). It appears, in fact, as if an extensive island had disappeared in some convulsion of nature, leaving above water only a long narrow ridge, without either mountains or valleys, rivers, forests, or plains. Groves of cedars are here and there detached on little plateaus of rising ground; and the numerous basins (some sixteen miles in circumference) formed by the islands, give very much the appearance of lake scenery. St. George's, the military station of the colony, and formerly the seat of government, lies at the entrance of the only passage for ships of burden. Its harbor, when once entered, is said to be one of the finest in the world. It is completely landlocked. The entrance is narrow, and is protected by a fort called Cunningham. After passing this entrance, the town presents one of the most beautiful landscapes the eye ever rested on.

Geology.—The whole group is composed of calcareous sand and limestone, derived from comminuted shells and corals, and the different varieties are associated without any definite order of position, the harder limestones occasionally resting upon loose sand. The arrangement of the beds is often dome-shaped, but in many instances the strata are singularly waved.

Climate.—The climate of the Bermudas is favorable to health, and may be said to be a perpetual summer.

Productive Resources.—The principal produce and manufactures of the islands are, arrowroot, potatoes, onions, and palmetto and straw hats, in producing which the people excel. All the ordinary products of tropical climates, both animal and vegetable, are found in abundance: the fruits are various and excellent. The arrowroot of Bermuda has a world-wide celebrity, and is fully equal to that brought from the East Indies. Beef and mutton may generally be procured, and large quantities of poultry are fed for supplying the shipping that call at these islands.

History.—These islands were discovered in 1522, by J. Bermudez, a Spaniard, who found them uninhabited. Sir George Somers was wrecked upon them in 1609. They were settled shortly after from Virginia and England, and have ever since remained in the uninterrupted possession of England.

The Madeiras.—The celebrated island which gives the title to this group is in 32° 38′ north latitude, 16° 56′ longitude west from Greenwich. The island is, in its greatest length, 45 miles, greatest breadth 15, and has an area of 407 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—Decidedly mountainous; the land rises from every part of the coast toward a central ridge, which passes from one extremity of the island to the other. Ruivo peak, the highest point, is about 6,000 feet above the sea. The scenery is very varied and picturesque, and the steep ravines and

beautiful valleys have been the admiring theme of many travellers. The south part of the island is not clothed with forests like the north, and gives the appearance at a distance of a rugged, barren, volcanic island; but near the shore, and in the openings of the ravines, there are numerous villas and cottages. There are several craters, and volcanic eruptions have occurred on several occasions.

Climate.—Every variety of temperature is obtained. Funchal, the chief town, a place of about 15,000 inhabitants, is the favorite residence of foreign invalids, or of persons of a consumptive tendency. The equable distribution of heat throughout the year is remarkable, the mean difference of successive months being only 2°, and the variation of successive days averaging only 1°.

Productive Resources.—Wine, corn, oil, honey, and fruits. About 25,000 pipes of wine, of 120 gallons each, are made annually.

Population.—About 120,000. The inhabitants are of a dark complexion and low stature.

History.—The island of Madeira was first seen in 1344, by an English vessel, and next visited in 1419 by the Portuguese, who bestowed on it the present name, in consequence of the abundance of timber with which it was covered. The Portuguese saw the value of such a possession, which soon yielded a revenue adequate to the maintenance of a government; its peculiar wines became famous throughout Europe, and returned an ample profit for the cultivation of the vine. In 1801 the British government sent troops to occupy Madeira, but evacuated it at the peace of Amiens. In 1807, Portugal being then under the control of France, General Beresford was sent from England to re-occupy the island; but in 1808 it was restored to Portugal, although garrisoned by English troops until 1814.

Porto Santo.—This island, lying northeast of Madeira, is about 15 miles in circumference, and gradually rises from the coast to a height of 1,600 feet above the sea. It has a parched appearance, owing to the absence of trees, but it yields about 1,500 pipes of wine annually, besides a quantity of corn and orchilla weed. Population, 2,000.

The Desertas are a few small detached islets.

The Canary Islands, under the dominion of Spain, are seven in number, and lie between 27° 47′ and 29° 14′ north latitude, and 13° 26′ and 17° 50′ longitude west from Greenwich.

Teneriffe, the largest, 70 miles long by 22 miles broad, is extremely mountainous, and contains the celebrated peak which rises like a sugar-loaf upward of 12,000 feet above the sea. It is a volcanic cone, and has at its summit a sulphurous crater, 300 feet long by 220 feet broad. Santa Cruz, the chief town, is pleasantly situated, and contains about 10,000 inhabitants, who form one tenth of the people of the island. Wine is the principal product; 25,000 pipes are shipped annually from Santa Cruz.

Grand Canary, from which the group derive their name, is forty-two miles long by twenty-seven broad. It is comparatively well-cultivated, and yields an excellent wine, together with abundance of oranges, lemons, figs, pomegranates, and other fruits. Palmas, the chief town, containing 10,000 inhabitants, has a handsome appearance. Population of the island, about 60,000.

Fuerta-Ventura, about fifty miles in length, with an unequal breadth, may be said to consist of two peninsulas, connected by an isthmus. Population 12,000.

Palma is hilly, fertile on the coast, contains about 25,000 inhabitants, and has a good chief town. A volcano broke out in 1625, causing great devastation.

Lauzerota is lofty and volcanic. Products, grain, and goat's flesh. Population, about 15,000.

Ferro (the first meridian of geographers) is a dry and barren island. Population about 5,000.

Gomera, with a population of 10,000 is cultivated, and abounds in corn, sugar, wine, and fruits ; it has an excellent harbor and neat town.

The Azores, or **Western Islands**, nine in number, occupy a line of 300 miles from the west-northwest to the east-southeast, between 36° 59′ and 39° 44′ north latitude, 25° 10′ and 31° 7′ longitude west from Greenwich. They are divided into three distinct groups, and received their title of *Ilhos dos Acores*, or islands of hawks, from their discoverers (in 1445) the Portuguese, to whom they still belong. They are of volcanic origin, and generally rugged and mountainous, with a bold mural coast line. The craters are numerous, vary in depth from 50 to 2,000 feet, and are clothed with verdant heaths and shrubs. The scenery is very beautiful.

Terceira, the chief island of the central group, is 250 miles west of the coast of Portugal, 20 miles in length, with a medial breadth of 13. It is surrounded by lofty precipitous rocks, which form a natural stronghold for 40,000 inhabitants. Augra, the chief town is well built.

St. George is 35 miles long by 5 broad, intersected longitudinally by a narrow mountain chain 2,000 feet above the sea. Population, 20,000. Chief town, Vellas.

Graciosa, 12 miles long by 6 broad, with 12,000 inhabitants ; runs up to a peak in the centre. Chief town, Santa Cruz. Population, 3,000.

Fayal, 12 miles long and 10 broad, has a volcanic peak 3,000 feet high. Scenery beautiful, and cultivated.

Pico, 35 miles by 8, has a mountainous volcanic ridge, and peak 6,700 feet high. It contains 30,000 inhabitants, scattered in towns along the coast, where there is some good land.

St. Miguel, or St. Michael, celebrated for its fine oranges, is 45 miles long by 6 to 12 miles broad, and contains 110,000 inhabitants. Pont Delgado, the principal town, is the most flourishing city of the Azores, and is well defended by three large forts, mounting more than 100 pieces of cannon. Population, 22,000.

St. Mary, 13 miles long by 7 miles broad, is chiefly composed of high, slaty rocks, in perpendicular layers, forming on all sides mural precipices, covered with a scanty soil. Population, 5,500.

Flores, and the North group islets, are little known.

Cape Verd Islands, ten in number, lie between 15° and 17° north latitude, and 23° and 25° longitude west from Greenwich. They belong to Portugal, and contain 45,000 inhabitants. They are generally mountainous. St. Jago, the principal island of the group, contains about 12,000 people, mostly a mixed race of Portuguese and negroes. They were first discovered in 1450, by Antonio de Voli, a Genoese navigator.

SOUTH AMERICA
Scale of Miles
Lon. W. from Greenwich
Lon. 13 West
Lon. E. 3
from Washington
Tropic of Capricorn
NEW GRENADA
VENEZUELA
GUIANA
ENGLISH
DUTCH
FRENCH
EQUADOR
PERU
BRAZIL
SOLIMOES
MATTO GROSSO
GOYAZ
MINAS GERAES
BAHIA
PERNAMBUCO
MARANHAM
PIAUHY
SEARA
PARAIBA
RIO GRANDE DO NORTE
PORTO SEGURO
ESPIRITO SANTO
RIO JANEIRO
ST. PAUL
ST. CATHARINE
RIO GRANDE DO SOL
URUGUAY
PARAGUAY
BOLIVIA
BUENOS AYRES
CHILI
PATAGONIA
BOGOTA
Popayan
Pasto
QUITO
Guayaquil
Cuenca
Loxa
Truxillo
LIMA
Callao
Huancavelica
Guamanga
Cuzco
Puno
Arequipa
L. Titicaca
La Paz
Oruro
Cochabamba
Santa Cruz
Potosi
CHUQUISACA
Tarija
Atacama
Salta
Tucuman
Catamarca
Santiago
Corrientes
Cordova
San Juan
Mendoza
San Luis
BUENOS AYRES
MONTEVIDEO
Rio de la Plata
Pampas
Negro R.
Bahia Blanca
G. of San Antonio
C. Blanco
Str. of Magellan
Falkland Isles
Terra del Fuego
Cape Horn
South Georgia I.
Wellington I.
Chiloe I.
Valdivia
Concepcion
Valparaiso
Juan Fernandez Is.
Quillota
Coquimbo
Huasco
Port Copiapo
Caracas
Cumana
Orinoco R.
Angostura
Coro
Trinidad
Martinico
Georgetown or Demerara
Paramaribo
Cayenne
Macapa
Para
Cometa
Maranham
Paranahyba
Seara
Oeiras
Olivenca
Obydos
Silves
Amazon River
Borba
Souzel
Falls
Cratto
Madeira R.
Xingu R.
Araguay R.
Ft. Principe de Beira
Matto Grosso or Villa Bella
Cuyaba
Villa Boa or Goyaz
Porto Salgado
Tejuco
Villa Rica
San Paul
Victoria
Bahia or St. Salvador
Porto Seguro
Pernagua
Barra
R. Grande
Cachoeira
Nosa Senora
Porto Alegre
Rio Grande
Villa Rica
Assumption
Uruguay R.
Parana R.
Native Tribes little known
Negro R.
Thomar
Pampas or Plains
Isthmus of Darien
Carthagena
Panama
Chagres
Tropic of Capricorn

SOUTH AMERICA.

The southern portion of the American continent is situated between 11° 20′ north and 56° 30′ south latitude, and 35° and 83° longitude west from Greenwich, and includes the several republics and divisions of New Grenada, Ecuador, Venezuela, Peru, Bolivia, Chili, the Argentine Republic, Paraguay, Uruguay, the empire of Brazil, Guiana, and Patagonia, all of which will be described in subsequent pages. South America is bounded on the north by the isthmus of Panama, which connects southern with Guatimala and Central America, and by the Caribbean sea, Trinidad, and some of the West India islands; on the northeast by the Northern Atlantic ocean, on the southeast and south by the Southern Atlantic, and on the west by the Pacific ocean. According to geographical writers, South America contains a superficial area of 6,500,000 square miles. The length, from north to south, is about 4,600 miles; and at the widest point, between Cape St. Roque in Brazil and the most westerly point in Peru, the distance is about 3,200 miles.

Physical Aspect.—This continent is marked by two striking features; the whole west coast consists of a plateau or table-land, averaging 10,000 feet in height, from which arises the great Andes chain of mountains; eastward of this tract lies an expanse of level country, intersected by three great rivers, the Amazon, La Plata, and Orinoco, with their numerous tributaries, besides many minor streams; further east another less elevated plateau stretches in what is termed a cordillera, nearly across the centre of the continent, and has several spurs and ridges in Brazil.

Mountains.—The Andes (derived from *Anta*, copper, or *Antes*, an Indian tribe) extend along the west coast from the isthmus of Panama, in 9° 25′ north latitude, to the straits of Magellan, in 55° 54′ south latitude. This immense rampart narrows toward the southern extremity; becomes suddenly broader to the north of Chili; between the parallels of 10° and 20° south attains its greatest breadth; and at Popayan divides into several lesser chains. In Patagonia, and as far north as the parallel of 41° south, the name given to the range is Sierra Nevada de los Andes; in Chili, Andes of Chili; in Peru, Royal Cordillera of the Andes, or Grand Cordillera of Peru; thence to the parallel of 2° north, the chain of Quito; and throughout Colombia the Andes receive distinctive names from the districts which they traverse. North of Quito, the summit of the Andes forms a great plain, whence arises the lofty peaks and volcanic cones of Cotopaxi, Chimborazo (21,440 feet high), and others, which are noticed in future pages.

Plains or Llanos.—These are immense savannas on the east of the Andes, whose level surface and profound solitude are likened by Humboldt to a tranquil ocean covered with sea-weeds. In a space of ninety square miles there is frequently not an eminence of a foot high. This equality of surface continues without interruption from the mouths of the Orinoco for 550 miles, and from San Carlos to the savannas of Caquitee on a meridian of 600 miles. Occasionally there are *bancos*, or banks of twelve or fifteen miles in length, four or five feet higher than the rest of the plain, with a horizontal surface, and composed of fractured strata of sandstone or compact limestone; sometimes *mesa*, or small convex eminences. Some of the llanos are destitute of trees, but covered with fine grass during the rainy season, which in time of drought is entirely dried up, and the verdant beauty of the scene gives place to gloomy desolation. These steppes have but few inhabitants of the human race, but are tenanted by numerous herds of wild horses and oxen, which multiply with great rapidity. These plains are also known under the name of pampas.

Rivers.—The Amazon or Marinon ranks first; it extends from 3° north to 19° south latitude, and has a length of about 3,000 miles. The absolute course, including its windings and sinuosities, is about 4,000 miles. The main trunk is composed of three rivers, the Ucayale, Tunguragua, and Madeira; and most of the streams which descend from the east side of the Andes (including the Rio Negro, of 1,260 miles, the Caqueta or Yupara, of 800 miles long) swell the mighty volume of waters which disembogue into the Atlantic near the equator. The island of Joannes, at its mouth, is 175 miles long and 125 broad; there are many other islands, and the entrance or passes are in number upward of eighty. The islands vary in size from 30 to 300 miles in circumference. The breadth of the chief mouth of the river is 150 miles; and the depth there more than 1,000 feet. The river waters are there impelled with such velocity that they repel the tides of the ocean, and carry their own stream pure and unmixed into the sea, a distance of 120 miles. The extent of country watered by this noble river is about 2,500,000 square miles. The Rio de la Plata, or river of silver, composed of the Paraguay, Parana, and Uruguay, receives the waters of the Chilian Andes, and those of the southwest and west faces of the Brazilian mountains. The Parana, the longest of the three great tributaries, has a course of 1,050 miles from its source to the junction, when the united streams takes the name of La Plata. It is navigable for 1,000 miles. The Orinoco combines most of the rivers that water the Caraccas and the eastern part of New Grenada; its direct course is about 1,200 miles, but its remarkable windings give it a length of more than 2,000 miles; and, with its confluent streams, it drains a country of 400,000 square miles. At 600 miles from the sea the breadth of the river is three miles, and the depth 717 feet. Toward the delta the whole of the flat country, for 600 miles' distance from east to west, and for ninety miles in breadth, is, during the inundations from April to October, one sheet of water. There are several cataracts, and much picturesque scenery. The Orinoco and the Amazon communicate by means of the river Cassiquiare, by which M. Humboldt passed from the Rio Negro into the Orinoco.

Climate.—The frigid, the temperate, and the torrid zone, are found at different elevations above the sea, but the salutary vicissitudes of the season are unknown. On the higher ridges of the Andes there is an absence throughout the year of all vivid heat, a continuous, intense, and humid cold, which prevents vegetation. The permanent field of snow is defined with an almost unvarying border; and in the equatorial regions of South America there is not that alternate thawing and freezing which produces the beautiful glaciers seen in the mountains of Europe and Asia. The temperate region of South America, adjacent to the equatorial Andes, possesses a constant, moderate warmth like that of a hothouse, and has its own peculiar vegetation. The equatorial countries of the South American continent experience excessive heat, with extreme humidity; and the atmosphere is rendered noxious to man by the miasmata arising from an immense mass of vegetable putrefaction. In Patagonia and on the eastern coasts there are, of course, latitudinal modifications of climate.

Vegetable Kingdom.—The gradations of plants and trees is regulated by the difference of latitude and the elevation above the sea. The researches of Humboldt, Bonpland, and other scientific travellers, have shown that equatorial America and the adjacent regions are rich in vegetable productions. The Alpine plants appear in a broad zone of 6,000 to 12,600 feet; they are succeeded by the grasses, which extend from 1,800 to 2,400 feet higher, and in many places the mountains have the appearance of being spread with a gilded carpet. At 18,225 feet the phœnogamous plants disappear, and thence to the boundaries of perpetual snow lichens cover the rocks. Among the tropical Andes the cultivation of wheat commences at 3,000 feet; barley is most thriving at a

height of 4,800 to 6,000 feet; the cocoa abounds between 4,920 and 5,160 feet; the banana does not easily ripen above 5,400 feet; sugar-cane grows at 7,500 feet, and coffee and cotton extend over the Cordilleras, at 3,000 to 7,000 feet. At 6,000 to 9,000 feet the various grains of the United States are cultivated. The Indian corn ceases at 7,000 feet, barley at 10,000, and the potato about 12,000 feet. Oaks do not commence in the equatorial regions at a lower elevation than 5,526 feet. The cinchona or Peruvian bark is found between 2,100 and 8,700 feet. A single variety of the palm tribe inhabits the heights of 5,400 to 8,700 feet. As the southern extremity of the continent is approached the number and variety of the vegetable kingdom diminish, until, at the barren coast of Terra del Fuego, vegetation almost ceases, as it does on the loftiest Cordillera of the Andes. On the eastern coasts of America, and along the margins of the great rivers, vast forests exist, interlaced with varieties of parasitic plants, and abounding with the strange forms and beautiful colors of the *Orchidæ* family, while on the lakes are found water-lilies, and other aquatic plants.

Animal Kingdom.—This department of nature is by no means equal in variety and size to the vegetable kingdom. The crocodile and boa-constrictor are masters of the river margin; the jaguar, tapir, agouti, deer, lama, peccavi, opossum, squirrel, and monkey, inhabit the forest without molestation from man. The condor, toucan, hocco, green, blue, and red parrots, oriole, kingfisher, fly-catcher, humming-bird, doves, and numerous birds of brilliant plumage, tenant the air. Butterflies, moths, and beetles, rivalling in splendor the colors of the rainbow, and innumerable insects, fill the atmosphere with life. Serpents, snakes, lizards (of all sizes and colors), bats, toads, and frogs abound; and that singular fish, the electric eel, is only found in the rivers of Southern America, which teem with varieties of fine fish. Horses and horned cattle, in herds of thousands, roam at large over vast plains which might be inhabited by man, and are capable of furnishing food for millions of the human race.

Minerals.—The basis of the vast Andes is granite, with superincumbent gneiss, then mica slate containing garnets; next, primitive slate, with beds of native alum, succeeded by slate, mixed with hornblende; above this, greenstone, or primitive trap, followed by amygdaloid; and last, porphyry. These primary rocks are flanked by beds of the older limestone, mica slate, hornblende, gypsum, and calcareous sandstone. The grand ridge is, in many places, covered with porphyry, basalt, phonolite, and greenstone, often broken into columns, and appearing like ruined castles. A silicious limestone, enclosing cinnabar, coal, and a calcareous limestone cementing the secondary rocks, are found of enormous thickness near the base of the chain. The depth of some of the formations is very great, and the immense fissures, or valleys, have facilitated geological inquiry. The sandstone near Cuenca is 5,000 feet thick, and a mass of pure quartz, on the west of Caxamarca, measures 9,600 feet perpendicular. The frozen summits of the highest peaks consist almost wholly of porphyry, and on the flanks form a mass of 10,000 or 12,000 feet in depth. Granite, which crowns the highest summits in Europe, is not found 14,500 feet above the sea; but basalt exists at an elevation, in Quito, of 15,500 feet, while its greatest known height in Europe is in Silesia, at an altitude of 4,225 feet. Fossil shells are found in the Andes 12,800 feet, at Micuipampa, and at Huancavelica, 14,120 feet in height, where also sandstone appears; while in Europe fossil shells have not been seen higher than the tops of the Pyrenees, 11,388 feet above the sea. Coal is found in New Grenada at 8,650 feet, and near Guanuco, in Peru, at 14,700 feet altitude. Gold, silver, quicksilver, and other metals, abound. There are several active volcanoes, even amidst the regions of perpetual snow.

History.—The southern portion of the American continent was discovered by Christopher Columbus. In 1492, on his first voyage, he made San Salva-

dor, one of the islands in the West Indies; on his second voyage, Cuba, Hispaniola or Hayti, Jamaica, and other islands; on his third voyage, in 1498, the Honduras coast, part of Mexico, &c. Vasco Munez de Balboa, in 1513, discovered the isthmus of Panama, crossed it, and formed a settlement at Darien, the first European town on the American continent. In 1500, Pedro Alvarez Cabral discovered the coast of Brazil. In 1525, Pizarro discovered, and subsequently conquered Peru, by a series of treacherous, though intrepid acts, scarcely paralleled in the history of mankind. In 1535, Don Diego de Almagro discovered and conquered part of Chili; and in 1540, Magellan discovered the straits which still bear his name, at the southern extremity of America, sailed through them, circumnavigated the world, and was the first who reached the East Indies by a westerly course. The whole peninsula of South America fell into the power of European governments. Spain took possession of the greater part, and Portugal of a large tract on the east. For three centuries the country remained in the possession of these two powers, with the exception of Guiana. The Spanish portions have lately become independent. The Portuguese part of South America, Brazil, is now under the dominion of a legitimate sovereign. He is the first European monarch that has established the seat of his empire in the Western continent. When discovered, at the close of the fifteenth century, South America was densely peopled, and possessed many large cities; but the ruthless policy of the Spanish conquerors, and the vices and diseases they introduced, caused the destruction of millions of the Indians. Of their present number we know nothing certain.

NEW GRENADA.

Doubloon, $15,60.

New Grenada, formerly a vice-royalty of Spain, extends from 12° north to 20° south latitude, and from 68° to 82° longitude west from Greenwich; and is bounded on the north by the Caribbean sea and a part of Venezuela, on the east by Venezuela and Brazil, on the south by Ecuador, and on the west by the Pacific. Area, 450,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The northern part of the great Andes chain, which here divides into three ranges, forms the leading feature. The table-lands, formed between the several ranges of the Andes, constitute the most valuable portion of the country. The llanos or plains commence at the foot of the eastern range, and extend thence into the Venezuelan territory. On an extensive table-land, remarkable for very many striking and picturesque features, 7,000 feet above the sea, Bogota, the capital, stands encircled by lofty mountains.

Rivers.—The majestic Magdalena river, or Rio Grande, traverses the country from south to north, and empties into the Caribbean sea. For some distance the Cauca river runs parallel, and joins the Magdalena below Mompax, after a course of 500 miles. The scenery at the junction of these noble streams is very beautiful. Numerous rivers with short courses descend from the west face of the Andes to the Pacific. The Funzha river, called the Rio de Bogota, has a fall of 650 feet in depth, composed of two leaps down a nearly perpendicular rock. The deep solitude, the richness of the surrounding vegetation, and the roar of the cataract, produce one of the most striking scenes in the Andes.

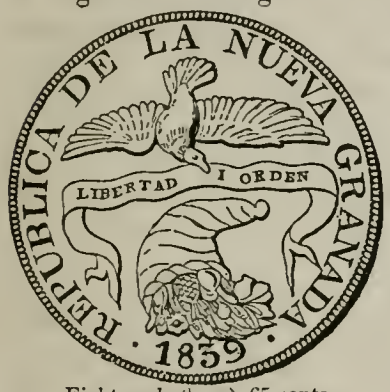
Climate.—The climate of New Grenada is as diversified as the surface. On the Pacific, and in the valleys of the great rivers, it is hot and unhealthy, intermittent, putrid, and bilious diseases, fevers, and dysenteries, being prevalent; but the table-lands are salubrious. Goitre prevails in the mountains.

Chief Towns.—Bogota, the capital; Carthagena, on the north coast, the finest harbor in the country; Santa Martha, also a good harbor; Porto Bello, Rio Hacha, Papayan, Panama, Chagres, Gorgona, Cruces, and Aspinwall.

Productive Resources.—Wheat, maize, rice, tobacco, plantains, cotton, cocoa, indigo, and sugar, are the principal agricultural products. Cedar, ebony, mahogany, and dyewoods, tolu balsam, cochineal, sarsaparilla, sassafras, licorice, cassia, aloes, and vanilla, abound in various parts of the country. Domestic animals are extensively bred. The soil of New Grenada is rich in minerals; among which are gold, silver, platina, quicksilver, copper, lead, and iron. Its manufactures are of the simplest kinds, mainly of leather, hammocks, baizes, &c.

Railroad.—The isthmus of Darien, uniting the continents of North and South America, is only 28 miles wide at the narrowest part. A railroad is nearly completed from Aspinwall to Panama, 46 miles, connecting the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. The gulf of Darien lies on the east side of the isthmus, and the bay of Panama on the west.

Population.—The population of N. Grenada is about 1,700,000 and is composed of Creoles, Indians, negroes, and the different mixed races, and bears a general resemblance to that of the Mexican states. The whites, however, are less numerous (except on the isthmus, which has lately been considerably augmented by emigration from the United States), and there is a greater proportion of negroes. The great mass are buried in ignorance, indolence, and superstition.



Eight reals (base), 65 cents.

History.—The discovery and occupation of this country by Balboa has been already noted. The dominion of the Spaniards was gradually extended over the country from Guiana to the Pacific. This section was subsequently divided into the three provinces of Conacas (New Venezuela), New Grenada, and Quito, these being governed by captains-generals, or viceroys, from Spain. The province of New Grenada declared itself independent of Spain in 1811; and by the memorable victory of Carabobo, in 1821, completed the downfall of the Spanish authority. In 1819, it formed a union with Venezuela, under the title of the Republic of Colombia, and Quito subsequently acceded to the confederacy. In 1831, Colombia was divided into the three republics of New Grenada, Venezuela, and Ecuador.

Eight reals (base), 65 cents.

Real, 12 cents.

Doubloon, $15,60.

¼ Pistole, 90 cents.

ECUADOR.*

Doubloon, $15,60.

The territory of the republic of Ecuador is situated between 2° north and 6° south latitude, and 68° and 82° longitude west from Greenwich; and is bounded north by New Grenada, east by Brazil, south by Peru, and west by the Pacific ocean, and comprises an area of 300,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—Ecuador is traversed, on its western side, from north to south, by a chain of the Andes, presenting two ridges of colossal peaks. Between these ridges is an elevated table-land, from thirty to fifty miles in width, and 9,000 feet above the level of the sea. The table-lands of Ecuador are clothed with perpetual verdure.

Mountains.—The Andes, in Ecuador, attain their highest elevation. The highest peak is Chimborazo, 21,440 feet. There are three peaks of more than 19,000 feet; one of 18,889; two, more than 17,000; four more than 16,000; and seven more than 15,000 feet.

Volcanoes.—Cotopaxi is an active volcanic cone; the inferior limits of its snowy zone is 14,472 feet, or 4,417 below the summit of the cone. The crater has a diameter of 258 feet, surrounded by a circular wall, like a parapet. In 1738, the flames rose 2,953 feet above the brink of the crater. In 1744, the roarings of this volcano were heard 600 miles distant. In 1803, the mantle of snow on the cone melted, and the roarings were heard at Guayaquil, distant 156 miles. Prodigious quantities of mud are ejected, and such an abundance of fish, two to four inches long, as sometimes, by their putrefaction, to infect the air. Pichincha is another great volcano. The height of this mountain is 15,936 feet. The mouth of the volcano forms a circular hole, of nine miles in circumference, the sides of which, a perpendicular precipice, are covered above with snow to their very edge. From one point of view eleven volcanic cones may be discovered, clad in perpetual snow.

Rivers.—The rivers of Ecuador are divided by the Andes, in which they take their rise, those on the west flowing into the Pacific ocean. The southeastern portion of the country is traversed by the Tunguragua, one of the main branches of the Amazon. It receives the Napo, the Putumayo, and the Tigre, from the north, and the Huallaga, the Ucayale, and the Javari, from the south, within the limits of the republic. The other most important river is the Guayaquil, which is navigable for the largest vessels the distance of forty miles from the sea, and empties itself into the fine bay of the same name, at which point stands the city of Guayaquil. The gulf is a fine body of water, and would afford a safe anchorage to a large amount of shipping.

Climate.—The climate is that of a continual spring, at once benign and equal, and even during the rainy season the mornings and evenings are clear and beautiful. Vegetation never ceases; the trees and meadows are crowned with perpetual verdure.

Chief Towns.—The city of Quito, situated 9,500 feet above the sea-level, is the capital of the republic. Guayaquil, before referred to, is the principal port of Ecuador. Other important towns are, Cuenca, Riobamba, Latacunga, Valladolid, Loxa, and Ibarra.

Productive Rrsources.—The principal occupation of the Ecuadoreans is agriculture. Cotton, coffee, sugar, yams, tobacco, maize, wheat, and fruits, both of tropical and temperate regions, are produced. The plains yield wax, gums,

* Or Equador, so called from the equator crossing its territory.

resins, and sarsaparilla. Fish are plentiful, and extensively taken on the Pacific coast. Gold and silver mines exist here, but at too high an elevation to render the working of them practicable.

Animals.—Jaguars, tapirs, and other wild animals, roam in vast numbers through the solitudes; vultures and other birds of prey inhabit the mountains; and the forests are alive with an aggregation of monkeys and parrots, and swarm with myriads of beautiful creations belonging to the bird and insect tribes. Reptiles are the dangerous denizens of the eastern departments, and exhibit themselves in great variety.

Political Divisions.—The republic of Ecuador is divided into the three departments, Ecuador, Guayaquil, and Assuay.

Population.—The population of Ecuador is estimated to be 600,000, divided as follows: whites and Creoles, 160,000; Indians, 390,000; and negroes, 50.000.

½ pistole, $1,80.

History.—The discovery and early history of Ecuador has been noticed under the history of New Grenada, with which it was connected until its final separation in 1831. Since that period the course of events are little known. Personal ambition and civil war have been predominant, and its history is but a record of successive dynasties.

Real, 8 cents.

VENEZUELA.

The republic of Venezuela lies between 2° and 12° north latitude, and 60° and 72° longitude west from Greenwich. It is bounded on the north by the Caribbean sea, on the east by the Atlantic and Guiana, on the south by Brazil, and on the west by New Grenada. Its superficial area is about 450,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—Mountains, plains, and valleys, comprise the physical features of Venezuela. The Andes extend across its northern portion. Some of the peaks are 18,000 feet high. The city of Caraccas has an elevation of 8,750 feet. The Parima mountains form the boundary between Venezuela and Brazil. The most remarkable feature is the vast plain, constituting a large part of its surface, which, including a part of New Grenada, has an area of 350,000 square miles.

Rivers and Lakes.—The Orinoco, with its tributaries, traverses the country from west to east, about 1,600 miles, and empties into the Atlantic through numerous mouths. Its principal tributaries are, the Guaviare, Apure, Meta, Ventuari, and Caroni. There are several lakes in Venezuela, the largest of which is Maracaibo. This lake furnishes mineral pitch, which, mixed with tallow, serves for paying vessels. This lake, which is 200 miles in length and ninety broad, communicates with the sea, but its waters are constantly fresh. Other lakes are, the Valencia, 40 miles long by 12 broad, and the Ipava, the source of the Orinoco.

Climate.—The climate of Venezuela is intensely hot and moist in the valleys, but in the mountains the temperature is delightful, and the weather equable. This country has been frequently visited by earthquakes. March 16, 1812, an earthquake laid Caraccas, Laguayra, St. Carlos, and other towns, in ruins, and destroyed about 10,000 persons.

Chief Towns.—The city of Caraccas is the capital; Laguayra and Porto Cabello the principal seaports. Other important towns are, Cumana, Valencia, Varinas, Angostura, Maracaibo, and Merida.

Productive Resources.—The principal products of the soil are, coffee, cotton, sugar, cocoa, indigo, sarsaparilla, dyewoods, and various medicinal plants and edible roots. Rich tropical fruits are abundant. Gold and copper mines exist, but the products are small. Manufactures are confined to a few simple articles of domestic use.

Commerce.—The exports and imports of Venezuela amount to about eight millions of dollars each annually.

Education.—The wretched system bequeathed to all South America by the Spaniards still exists in Venezuela; but the state has made some provision for elementary education. Primary schools are established in every parish, and Lancasterian schools exist in the principal cities.

Population.—The population of Venezuela, according to a recent census, was 1,267,692.

Government.—Venezuela is nominally a republic, but in reality a despotism. The president of Venezuela is in fact a monarch, and all powers are subservient to him. The legislative power is nominally vested in a senate and house of deputies; but the influence of the executive is such, that the legislature is but the shadow of a power.

History.—The early history of Venezuela, and its union with New Grenada and Quito, as the republic of Colombia, has been previously mentioned. In 1829, Venezuela was separated from the republic of Colombia, and again became an independent republic, under the presidency of General Paez. In 1830, after the resignation of Bolivar, it again joined the Colombian republic, but this union was of short duration. In November a new separation took place, and Colombia was finally divided into the three republics of Venezuela, New Grenada, and Ecuador. Since this period the country has enjoyed external peace; but, within her own borders, the caldron of political strife has been in constant ferment; and civil wars have reduced the energies of the republic, and operated heavily on its progress and prosperity. On the 30th March, 1847, a treaty was concluded at Madrid, by which Spain renounced all sovereignty over Venezuela, and acknowledged her to be a free and independent nation. The following persons have been successively presidents of the republic since its separation in 1830: General José Antonio Paez; Dr. Vargas; General Soublette; José Tadeo Monagas; who was succeeded by his brother, José Greg. Monagas, the present president, whose term of service will end in 1854.

GUIANA.

Guiana consists of three provinces, belonging respectively to England, Holland, and France. It lies between 4° and 8° 40′ north latitude, and 57° 30′ and 60° longitude west from Greenwich; and is bounded on the north and northeast by the Atlantic ocean, on the east, south, and southwest by Brazil, and on the west by Venezuela. Its superficial area is about 136,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The general aspect of Guiana is an alluvial flat, extending from the coast inland, varying in breadth from 10 to 40 miles, and terminating at the foot of a range of sand-hills from 30 to 130 feet high. The inland country is traversed by three ranges of mountains, which frequently rise 1,000 to 5,000 feet above the ocean. These chains form many rapids and cataracts

in the greater rivers, and contain the sources of the Berbice and Mazaruni rivers. The highest point is Mount Roraima, which has an elevation of 7,500 feet. Between the first and second chains of hills are some extensive savannas, which approach the seashore, east of the river Berbice. With the exception of these savannas, and the swamps of the Berbice, the interior is mostly covered with hill ranges and dense forests. The soil is generally exceedingly fertile.

Rivers.—The principal rivers of Guiana are, Essequibo, Corentyn, Berbice, Demerara, Mazaruni, Cuyuni, Surinam, Maroni, and Oyapok.

Climate.—Along the coast it is a low, flat, and unhealthy region, with a hot, oppressive climate. But the hill and mountain country of the interior possesses as salubrious a climate as is found in any tropical country. Two wet and two dry seasons constitute the changes of the year. The dry seasons are from August to November, and from January to April, the intermediate portions of the year being rainy. Hurricanes are unknown, and gales unfrequent. Thunderstorms occur at the changes of the seasons, but, like the occasional shocks of earthquake, are not attended with danger.

Productive Resources.—Sugar, coffee, cotton, cocoa, maize, and indigo, are produced in abundance. There is also a profusion of various delicious fruits. The orange and lemon trees, with many others, are at all times in bloom, and loaded with ripe and ripening fruit. It is on account of the great fertility of this unhealthy spot, that it is valued by the European governments.

History.—According to some, Columbus discovered Guiana in 1498; others give that honor to Vincent Pinzon; and others accord it to Vasco Nunez, in 1504. The Dutch, who were the first European settlers, established some colonies near the Pomeroon, and elsewhere, in its neighborhood, in 1580, and several farther to the east a few years afterward. The first English settlement was made in 1630. Most of Guiana, however, remained in the hands of the Dutch, until 1796, when Essequibo and Demerara were surrendered to England. They were restored to the republic in 1802, but recaptured by the British during the subsequent year. The present territory, called "British Guiana," has remained in the hands of the English ever since, but Surinam was relinquished at the general pacification in 1814. The first French settlement was made in the island of Cayenne, in 1604, and with but few short interruptions from the English and Dutch, that nation has held this station ever since, and the rest of the colony till 1809, when it was taken by the British and Portuguese, and annexed to the dominions of the latter: but at the peace of Paris, it was again given up to its present owners.

British Guiana.—Upward of half of Guiana is comprised in the British possessions. It lies on the east, and is separated from the Dutch colony by the river Corentyn. Its area is estimated at 76,000 square miles, though about 64,000 square miles of this is claimed by Venezuela and Brazil.

Political Divisions.—British Guiana includes three colonies: Demerara, Berbice, and Essequibo. The only towns worthy of note are, Georgetown, the capital, and New Amsterdam. The former lies on the east bank of the Demerara river, and has a population of 20,000, of whom 16,000 are colored. New Amsterdam is situated on the Berbice, and has a population of about 3,000.

Commerce.—The principal exports of British Guiana are, sugar, rum, coffee, and cotton. The commerce of the country has materially declined from that of former years. The colonists use the English imperial measures in all commercial transactions, but those of Holland in the retail trade. The moneys of England, France, and Holland; in fact, the moneys of all nations, pass current, or are taken as bullion.

Government.—The government is vested in a governor and court of policy, consisting, beside the governor, of the chief-justice, and attorney-general, collec-

tor of the customs and government secretary, and an equal number of official persons elected by the colonists, through the college of electors. The laws are chiefly a modification of English common law.

Population.—British Guiana has an aggregate population of about 120,000, consisting of but 5,000 whites, 95,000 black and mixed races, and 20,000 native Indians.

Dutch Guiana.—The present Dutch possessions in Guiana consist of Surinam, which lies between the English and French settlements, separated from the former by the Corentyn, and from the latter by the Maroni. Its superficial area is about 38,500 square miles.

Commerce.—The exports are similar to those of British Guiana, being principally confined to sugar, coffee, cotton, cocoa, cabinet woods, gums, balsams, and drugs. The imports are mainly arms and manufactured goods from Holland, and provisions from the United States.

Chief Town.—Paramaribo is the capital of the colony, and the only town worth noticing. It is situated near the mouth of the Surinam river, and has about 20,000 inhabitants, 15,000 of which are negroes and mulattoes.

Government.—The government is vested in a governor-general and privy council. The governor resides at Fort Zeelandia, a little north of Paramaribo.

Population.—The population of this territory, exclusive of Indians and maroons, is probably 6,500, chiefly Dutch, French, and Jews; the remainder negroes. The maroons are the descendants of runaway negroes, who established a species of independence in the interior, and were very troublesome during the last century; they have now, however, adopted more settled habits, and receive annual presents from the government of weapons, arms, &c., and form a kind of military frontier to the settled parts of the colony.

French Guiana.—Cayenne, the French province of Guiana, is the most easterly of the three colonies, extending from the Maroni to the Oyapok, and comprising an area of 21,648 square miles. The settled or cultivated lands do not extend over more than one eightieth part of the territory; the rest being left to the native Indians and wild beasts.

Productive Resources.—Sugarcane was introduced soon after the colony was settled, and since 1829 has been extensively cultivated. Cayenne is noted for the production of the pungent red pepper which takes its name from the province. Other products are, coffee, cotton, cocoa, manioc, rice, corn, bananas, cloves, arnatto, cinnamon, nutmegs, and vanilla.

Chief Towns.—Cayenne, the capital, is situated on the island of the same name, and has about 5,000 inhabitants, of whom four fifths are negroes. Kausou, Sinnamaree, and Oyapok, are small settlements, scattered along the coast.

Commerce.—The exports and imports amount to about $600,000 each annually. The imports are principally from France, and her other colonies.

Political Divisions.—French Guiana is divided into two districts, and fourteen communes, composing six electoral arrondissements, and sending sixteen deputies to the colonial council.

Government.—The government is vested in a governor, assisted by a privy council of seven members and the colonial council, elected by the people, for five years.

Population.—The inhabitants of Cayenne consist of 5,000 whites and 25,000 blacks, making a total of 30,000, exclusive of the native Indians. Cayenne has attracted considerable attention of late years, as a penal colony for political offenders, sent thither from the mother-country.

BRAZIL.

Moidore, $6.

This country (so called from *braza*, a valuable indigenous wood) stretches along about two thirds of the eastern coast of South America, while its superficial area occupies nearly half its whole extent. It lies between 4° 17′ north and 33° south latitude; its most easterly point is Cape San Roque, in 34° 58′ west longitude; its western limit is uncertain—it probably reaches the 75th meridian. The length, from north to south, is 2,500 miles, and its breadth, from east to west, over 2,000 miles. The coast on the Atlantic is more than 3,500 miles long, and its area has been estimated at from 3,000,000 to 3,400,000 square miles. The Atlantic forms its eastern and south-eastern boundary; Guiana and Venezuela, from which it is separated by a chain of mountains, under the various names of Acaray, Parimo, Pecaraima, &c., and the Rio Oyapok, lie on the north, and its western boundary is formed by the republics of Uruguay, Paraguay, Bolivia, Peru, Ecuador, and New Grenada.

Physical Aspect.—Nearly two thirds of Brazil consists of high land and mountains. The interior of the country is principally a vast forest, except that in the centre there is a barren table-land (the Campos Geraes), 300 miles in extent from east to west. The soil near the coast is rich in the extreme, and literally teems with exuberant vegetation. Estimates have been given of the comparative quantity of the country under tillage, and that still in a wild state, or occupied by rivers, lakes, swamps, &c.; but, from the limited knowledge possessed of this empire, even by the Brazilians themselves, such estimates must be entirely futile. It is, however, abundantly certain that the extent of cultivated land bears but a very small proportion indeed to that of the whole country—perhaps not more than two or three per centum.

Mountains.—Brazil is traversed by three chains of mountains. On the east side, extending north and south, is the Cerro do Mars or Coast range, whose average height is about 3,000 feet. This is by far the most picturesque of the Brazilian chains, and in some parts approaches within a few miles of the sea, while in others it sweeps inland for 120 to 140 miles. The central chain, the Cerro do Mantequeira or Espinhaco, is more extensive than the former, and comprises the highest points in Brazil, namely, the Itacolami, the Cerro do Carassa, and the Itamba. The third chain is the Cerro dos Vertentes, or Water-separating mountains, so called because it divides the eastern tributaries of the rivers Amazon and La Plata from the river San Francisco. This chain is sometimes called the Brazilian Pyrenees. Its loftiest summits are those of the Cerro do Canastra, and Marcella, where, on one side, the river San Francisco, and on the other, the most important tributaries of the Rio Grande, take their rise; and the Pyrenees, in the province of Goyaz, where the tributaries of the Parana are found.

Rivers.—The principal rivers in Brazil are, 1, the Amazon, generally considered the largest river in the world. It is formed by the junction of the modern Marañon (Tunguragua) with the Ucayale or ancient Marañon. Its principal tributaries are, the Madeira, the Xingu, the Rio Negro (itself the recipient of forty tributaries), the Tapajos, and about sixty others of less importance and magnitude. 2. The Rio Pardo, which traverses a portion of the province of San Paulo, rises in the district of San Joäo del Rey, and empties itself into the Parana. 3. The Rio Doce, traversing the province of Espiritu Santo, and serving as a sort of means of uniting the interior of Minas Geraes with the coast.

4. The Para* or Tocantins, formed by the junction of the Araguay and Tocantins, properly so called; the former is the principal branch. 5. The Rio San Francisco, one of the largest of the Brazilian rivers. Its course is interrupted by the cascade of Paolo Affonzo. 6. The Rio Grande do Sul, in the province of San Pedro. 7. The Parana, which separates Brazil from Paraguay and the Argentine republic. Its chief tributaries are the Rio Pardo, the Itahy, and the Aguapehy. In addition to the above, may be mentioned the Parnahyba, the Oyapok, dividing French Guiana from Brazil, the Paraguacu, the Rio Itapecuri, the Rio Grande do Norte, the Jiquihona, so celebrated for its diamonds, the Jaquaribe, &c., &c. Many of the rivers of Brazil, especially the Amazon, like the Nile, overflow their banks, and subject the country to extensive inundations, attended with an injurious effect upon the health. The navigation of many is interrupted at a distance from the coast by dangerous falls and rapids, and the mouths of many of the smaller rivers are subject to winds and currents, which render them extremely unsafe to the navigator. The lakes of Brazil are of little account; they are few in number, and small in extent. The principal are, the Los Patos, and Mirim, the former of which is merely a widening of the Rio Grande de San Pedro. There are also those of Juperanam, Jiguiba, Manguaba, Parapetinga, Jaguarassu, &c., &c.

Climate.—The climate of Brazil varies with the latitude and altitude, and presents all the transitions of the temperate and torrid zones. Winter is severe in the southern provinces, and it even freezes at Rio Grande de San Pedro and San Catarina. The west wind, in the interior, passing over vast marshy forests, is unhealthy. Pernambuco, and a few other provinces, suffer occasionally from drought. The spring commences in September, the summer in December, the autumn in March, and the winter in June. The rainy season is generally from October to March.

Political Divisions.—Brazil is divided into eighteen provinces, which, with the chief town of each, are as follows:—

Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
San Pedro do Rio Grande	Porto Alegre.	Parahiba	Parahiba.
San Catarina	Desterro.	Rio Grande do Norte	Natal.
San Paulo	San Paulo.	Ceara	Fortaleza.
Rio Janeiro	Rio Janeiro.	Piauhi	Oeiras.
Espirito Santo	Victoria.	Maranham	Maranham.
Bahia	Bahia (San Salvador)	Para	Belem.
Sergippe del Rey	Sergippe, or San Christovao.	Matto Grosso	Cuyaba.
Alagoas	Macayo.	Goyaz	Goyaz.
Pernambuco	Recife.	Minas Geraes	Ouro Preto.

Productive Resources.—The vegetable products of Brazil are unrivalled, in regard to luxuriance and variety, by those of any other nation of the world. Among them are, coffee, sugar, cotton, cocoa, rice, tobacco, maize, wheat, manioc, beans, cassava-root, bananas, ipecacuanha, ginger, yams, oranges, figs, &c. Of these, the most important are, coffee and sugar, which are now, in fact, the staple products of the empire, and the culture of which has increased with almost unexampled rapidity. Cotton ranks, next to coffee and sugar, as one of the principal products of Brazil. It is mostly grown in the province of Pernambuco, and, in respect of quality, is inferior only to sea-island cotton. The forests of Brazil, which are of vast extent and luxuriance, furnish almost every variety of useful and ornamental wood, their products being adapted alike to ship-building, carpenters' and cabinet work, dyeing, &c. Drugs of a great variety are found in Brazil. The mineral products of the country are chiefly confined

* At the mouth of the Para, the phenomenon of the *bore*, to which the Indians have given the name of *pororoca*, manifests itself in a very striking manner. Three days previous to the new or full moon, when the tides are highest, an immense wave, upward of fifteen feet in perpendicular height, rushes from shore to shore with a tremendous noise, and is succeeded immediately by a second and third, and sometimes by a fourth. The tide, instead of occupying six hours to flow, attains its greatest height in a few minutes. The roaring of the *pororoca* is heard distinctly at the distance of two leagues.

to the more rare and valuable descriptions. The most noted of these are diamonds.* Gold mines in Brazil have been extensively wrought. Among the other mineral productions of this country are, iron, platina, and copper. Precious stones, especially topazes, of a great variety, abound in Brazil.

Manufactures.—Unless we call the preparation of sugar and caoutchouc manufactures, they can hardly be said to exist in Brazil, and are restricted to the production of the coarsest cloths, the tanning of leather, and a few of those that are most simple and necessary; but a great number of trades are carried on. There is great demand for mechanics to build sugar and other mills, to construct machines for working the gold mines, &c., and very high wages are paid them.

Commerce.—The commerce of Brazil is very extensive; her existing commercial system is one of great freedom and liberality, and is well calculated to accelerate the development of her resources. The duties on exports and imports are moderate, and are imposed for the sake of revenue alone, and not for prohibition. The imports comprise all sorts of manufactured goods, suitable for the people and climate, particularly cottons, linens, woollens, and hardware, from England; flour, provisions, and coarse cottons, from the United States; wines, silk, salt, brandy, &c., from France and Portugal; linens, lace, &c., from Hamburg, &c.

Education.—The greatest want of Brazil at the present moment seems to be that of good elementary instruction. Hitherto most schools established in the country have been under the control of ecclesiastics, alike ignorant and bigoted. The influence of the clergy, however, is every day becoming less powerful; and several respectable academies have been opened in most of the large towns, by parties not under their guidance. But, speaking generally, there are as yet no means in Brazil by which even the children of the middle classes can acquire anything like a really good and useful education. Till some efficient measures be taken to supply this defect, but little improvement need be looked for, in either the morals or literature of the people.

Population.—The actual population of the Brazilian empire can only be approximately given. It has been variously estimated at from 5,000.000 to 7,000,000, one half of which are slaves, and a mixed race of negroes and Indians.

Dollar, $1.

History.—The discovery of Brazil has been attributed to Martin Behem, who is said to have visited the coast in 1494; but the better opinion has allowed the merit of having first seen this part of South America to Pedro Alvarez Cabral, a Portuguese navigator, who made the discovery on Easter Sunday, 1500. It was occupied by the Portuguese in 1504, was made a penal settlement until 1549, and and thrown open for colozination in 1624. St. Salvador, the then capital, was taken by the Dutch, and recaptured by the Portuguese in 1626. They were much harassed by the Hollanders, who, in 13 years, cap-

* The most celebrated diamond mines in Brazil are those of Serrada Frio. They are wrought by accumulating the cascalhao, a kind of ferruginous earth (in which the diamonds are found mixed with flints), and washing it. The former operation is generally performed during the hot season, at a time when the beds of the rivers and torrents are dry, and the diamond-sand can be easily extracted. When the wet season arrives, the operation of washing commences. It is performed in the open air, and frequently under sheds, where the action of the sun is least likely to injure the health of the negroes At the bottom of the shed glides a small stream, which occupies one of its sides. Seats, raised, and without backs, are arranged along the shed, in such a manner that the subaltern officers (feitores) are enabled to watch the negroes at work. One feitor superintends eight negroes. Each negro works in a compartment of the shed, separated or walled off, as it were, from the others. The cascalhao to be examined is placed in troughs close to the stream, and the negroes are introduced entirely naked, excepting in time of extreme cold, when they are allowed a kind of waistcoat, but without either pockets or lining. They are furnished with an alavanco, a kind of handspike, by means of which they separate the earth from the flint, and then, taking the largest stones in their hands, they proceed to search for the diamonds.

tured from the Spanish and Portuguese 545 vessels, the value of whose proceeds was $37,000,000. In 1635, the Dutch conquered the whole of Brazil to the north of Rio Francisco, Para and Maranham excepted. In 1654, they were entirely driven out of Brazil by the provincials alone. At the beginning of the 17th century, the English and French made some feeble attempts to form settlements at the mouth of the Marañon and in Maranham, but were soon expelled. The Brazilian colonies rose to great importance, and in 1807, when a French army was approaching Lisbon, the regent prince quitted his European dominions, and, under protection of Sir Sidney Smith and a British squadron, reached Rio de Janeiro,* where he was received with great enthusiasm, the inhabitants offering to build a palace, &c., if the city were made the capital of the Portuguese dominions; accordingly, in December, 1815, the colony of Brazil was integrally joined to Portugal, under the title of the United kingdom of Portugal, Brazil, and Algarva. In 1819, the Brazilians, assisted by an English man-of-war, recovered possessions of Portuguese Guiana. In 1821, the cortez of Lisbon invited their sovereign to revisit his ancient capital, and Don John VI., on the 22d of April, previous to departing for Europe, nominated his eldest son, Don Pedro, regent of Brazil. On the 1st of December, 1822, the Brazilians, provoked by the impolitic proceedings of the cortez at Lisbon, proclaimed their independence, and conferred the imperial crown on Don Pedro. In 1824, the present constitution was promulgated and sworn to. The spirit of this constitution is monarchical. The legislature consists of two chambers; a senate, appointed by the emperor, and a house of representatives, elected by the people. On the 7th of April, 1831, Don Pedro abdicated in favor of his son, Don Pedro II., then a child of five years of age, consequently a regency was appointed. The present emperor is a grandson of the late emperor of Austria; the empress is a Neapolitan princess, and a sister of Queen Christina of Spain. Excepting British and Russian America, Brazil is the only country under royal government on the continent of America.

Notwithstanding the precaution of making the negroes work naked, robberies of diamonds are of frequent occurrence. When a negro discovers a diamond, having first shown it to the feitor, he deposites it in a large wooden vessel suspended in the middle of the shed. If any negro is fortunate enough to discover a diamond weighing 17 carats, he is purchased by the government, and receives his liberty. The discovery of a stone of less weight also confers liberty upon the finder, but with some restrictions. Various premiums are distributed, according to the value of the stone, even to a pinch of tobacco. Notwithstanding every imaginable precaution, negroes find means to purloin diamonds, which they dispose of to smugglers (contrabandistas) at a very low price. The latter dispose of them chiefly at Tijucu and Villo do Principe. They obtain a higher price at the latter, because their risks are greater in transporting them thither. The negroes frequently contrive to impose upon the contrabandistas, as they have the means, by some simple process, of giving crystals the appearance of rough diamonds, so as effectually to deceive them. About 20,000 negroes are employed in these diamond mines. The value of the diamonds found in these mines, since their discovery in 1728, is estimated at $30,000,000.

* Rio de Janeiro, or Rio, as it is frequently called, is the capital of Brazil, and the largest and most important commercial city of South America. It is situated on the west side of one of the finest bays in the world. The city, which is in the shape of a parallelogram, is situated on level ground, at the foot of hills, and has a fine appearance from the bay. The older portion, or that adjoining the sea, is divided on the west from what may be called the new town by a large open space, the Campo da Honra. The style of architecture is in general mean, resembling that of the older parts of Lisbon; and though great improvements have been effected since the emigration of the court of Portugal to Rio in 1807, a great deal must be done before it will be entitled to rank even with a second-rate European town. The streets, which are mostly straight, and intersect each other at right angles, are pretty generally furnished with *trottoirs*, and paved with blocks of granite. But although many of them have been widened of late years, and otherwise improved, they are still, for the most part, narrow and dirty, with a watercourse in the centre, the usual receptacle of the filth from the houses. The houses, which are mostly of granite, or of granite and wood, are seldom more than two stories in height, rough, or whitewashed, with red tile roofs. They are narrow, but deep in proportion to the height; the lower story is commonly occupied by the shop or workhouse, and, in the houses of people of distinction, by the stable and coachhouse; the second story (and third if there be one) comprising the family apartments. The mildness of the climate, which is here a perpetual spring, rendering artificial heat here unnecessary, there are no fireplaces except in the kitchens, and, consequently, very few chimneys, which, to a stranger from the north, gives the city a bald, and, as it were, truncated appearance. There are about forty churches, the most important of which is the cathedral of Nossa Senhora da Gloria, on a lofty hill, making it a conspicuous object for a great distance. The royal palace forms two sides of an oblong space, opening on the bay. There are a number of educational institutions, a botanical garden, and a large public library. Water is conveyed into the city from a neighboring hill (2,308 feet high), called the Corcovado, by a magnificent aqueduct, constructed in 1740. The water is thence conveyed to public fountains in different parts of the city; and many persons earn a livelihood by carrying water from these fountains to private families. The commerce of Rio is very extensive, and has rapidly increased during the last few years. The export of coffee is nearly equal to that from all the other ports of the world. The other great articles of export from Rio are, sugar, hides, rice, tobacco, rum, tapioca, ipecacuanha, manioc flour, and other inferior articles. The population of Rio is about 200,000 one half of which are slaves and mixed races.

PERU.

Eight reals, $1.

The republic of Peru extends from 3° to 22° south latitude, and from 69° to 81° 20′ longitude west from Greenwich. It is bounded on the north by the republic of Equador, on the east by Brazil and Bolivia, on the south by Bolivia, and on the west and southwest by the Atlantic ocean. The form is irregular, in general not exceeding 240 miles in breadth; the tract on the south, termed Arica, is about 600 miles along the coast, with a medial breadth of 70 miles. Its superficial area is about 500,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The Andes form the prominent feature; their highest summit in this region is the dome of Chuquibamba, which rises north of Arequipa to the height of 21,000 feet. Omati, the celebrated volcano of Arequipa, is 18,000 feet high; to the southward there are several other volcanic cones, of great altitude. Six other chains, of lesser height, run parallel with the Andine chain, for four or five hundred miles. Exclusive of the narrow strip of land between the Andes and the Pacific, there are broad and extensive valleys between the several ranges, and immense plains, or *pampas*, extend from Montana Real for 600 miles to the eastward, containing 60,000 square miles. These plains are abundantly watered, clothed with dense forests, and very fertile. The seacoast is but little indented with bays or havens. Callao, in Lima, is the principal maritime station.

Rivers and Lakes.—The principal rivers of Peru have their source in the Andes, and are, the Tunguragua, or upper portion of the Amazon, and its confluents, Huallaga, Ucayale, Paro, and some other tributaries. The rivers of the coast are small, shallow, and incapable of navigation. The principal lakes are, Titicaca, Lanri, Vilque, Villafro, Chincay, Chinquiacobo, and Cocama. Titicaca, the largest in South America, is in the immense inter-Alpine valley of Desaquadero, being partly within the boundaries of Bolivia. It is 13,000 feet above the sea, and its extensive and beautiful shores may be considered the birthplace of Peruvian civilization. The lake is 150 miles long, and about 50 miles broad, with many bays or recesses connected with the main body of the lake by narrow necks. Its centre is 400 to 500 feet deep, and is navigated by large ships; it is, however, subject to storms, and fearful gusts of wind. Ten rivers fall into Titicaca, and its only visible outlet is the river Desaquadero, in Bolivia. The country around is highly picturesque, and thickly planted with villages. There are several islands on the lake, on one of which stood a magnificent temple, dedicated to the sun, and enriched with incalculable wealth, the pious offerings of the Peruvians for ages.

Climate.—There are four climates in Peru: that of the coast, constantly dry and temperate; that of the sierras, mild, moderately humid, and variable; that of the Andes, piercingly cold; that of the pampas, warm, and excessively humid. The dews of night are heavy. At Lima, spring begins with December, summer with February, autumn with May, and winter with August.

Political Divisions.—Peru is divided into seven departments or intendencies, four of which, viz., Lima, Truxillo or Libertad, Junin, and Arequipa, are on the Pacific coast, and three, Ayacucho, Cuzco, and Puno, in the interior.

Cities and Chief Towns.—Lima, the most magnificent city of South America, is the capital of Peru. Its population, by a late census, is 54,094, having

been almost stationery for the last sixty years. It was founded by Francisco Pizarro in 1535. For many years it was the largest and richest city in South America, but it has suffered severely from earthquakes, viz., in 1586, 1630, 1687, and 1746; in the last-named year, two thirds of the houses and churches were thrown down, the crops destroyed, and the country around rendered unproductive for several years. In 1828, Lima suffered another visitation, and although it lasted only thirty or forty seconds, many buildings were prostrated, and thirty persons killed. Other principal cities and towns are, Truxillo, Huanuco, Arequibo, Ayacucho, Cuzco (the ancient capital), Puno, Callao, Sechura, Payta, Pasco, Junin, Banot, Asica, Huancavelica, Abancery, Tinta, Urubamba, Tampa, and Chucuita.

Productive Resources.—Agriculture is much neglected. Its principal products are, cotton, cocoa, coffee, cochineal, cinnamon, pimento, twenty-five species of pepper, tobacco, saltpetre, cinchona or Peruvian bark, jalap, copal, seven different sorts of wax, sugarcane, turmeric, ginger, many aromatic balsams, gums, and herbs; immense forests, especially on the maritime plains, abound with useful timber, among others the *Fenula*, or gigantic fennel, which grows to a surprising size, and affords a wood four times lighter than the lightest pine, and yet of considerable strength. But great as are the vegetable riches of this fine country, they are surpassed by the extensive mines of gold, silver, and quicksilver, which have been worked for ages, and are still inexhaustible. Indeed, many of the richest known to the ancient Peruvians have as yet been successfully concealed from the Spaniards and their descendants. Gold is found in lumps, pure, or mixed with quartz; silver in ore; from one mine $50,000,000 of the precious metal has been extracted. Humboldt estimates the total produce of the Peruvian mines, from the period of the occupation of the Spaniards, at $1,000,000,000. Since the obtainment of national independence the produce has diminished. Copper and lead mines, are also worked to some extent. The auriferous discoveries in California will probably give an increased stimulus to the working of gold and silver mines throughout South America.

Commerce.—The principal exports from Peru are, gold, silver, quicksilver, and other metals; Peruvian and other medicinal barks; nitrate of soda or saltpetre, drugs; chincilla, seal, and other skins; wool, hides, tallow, &c. Its imports are chiefly manufactured goods from England and the United States.

Education.—Education is limited to a few of the higher classes. There are Lancasterian schools in some of the larger towns, and a university, and several collegiate schools, at Lima. The sciences are little cultivated, and ornamental takes the precedence of useful instruction.

Population.—Peru must, at one period, have possessed numerous inhabitants, or its great temples, extensive roads (four, each 1,500 miles in length), and enormous cemeteries, could not have been made. The present population, consisting principally of Spaniards, native Indians, Africans, and the several commixtures from their original sources, is estimated vaguely at 2,000,000.

Four reals (base), 35 cents.

Government.—The basis of the present government of Peru is republican. The constitution recognises executive, legislative, and judicial functions, each independent of the others. Congress consists of two branches, chosen from the people, through electoral colleges. The president is chosen by Congress for six years. Judges are appointed during good behavior, by the president.

Four reals (base), 35 cents.

Doubloon, $15,60.

History.—According to De la Vega, the Peruvian empire flourished under the administration of twelve incas or sovereigns, for 400 years before the arrival of the Spaniards, under Pizarro, 1532, in the bay of Guayaquil. The country was distracted by civil war, and, after a slight resistance, fell an easy prey to the Spanish adventurer, whose force consisted of three vessels, carrying 185 soldiers, 37 horses, and several pieces of ordnance. This is not the place to detail the treacheries, massacres, and barbarities, practised by the Spaniards on the helpless and unoffending Peruvians, whose armies, some of which numbered 200,000 men, were unable to oppose a few hundred Spaniards, provided with firearms. The wealth of the temples and palaces, which was immense, became an easy prey to the swarms of adventurers that followed the footsteps of Pizarro; for a time the Spaniards preserved the form of an Indian or native government; this, at a convenient opportunity, was laid aside, and a viceroy, sent direct from Madrid, administered the affairs of the country. The acquisition of riches being the sole object of the European conquerors, was pursued with the most ruthless indifference as to the means employed; every attempt for the recovery of their freedom was suppressed with unmitigated severity; the great mass of the population was sent to work in the mines, where, according to General Miller, 8,285,000 Indians perished; and there is probably no other part of the world where, within the space of 300 years, so much human blood has been shed as in Peru. The Spaniards at length met the reward of their atrocious conduct; the invasion of Spain, by Napoleon, encouraged the Spanish colonies in South America to revolt. Peru remained quiet after other parts of Spanish America had raised the standard of independence. In 1820, a Chilian army, under San Martin, entered the country, and captured Lima. Peru was declared independent on the 28th of July, 1821. But the royalists afterward gained ground, and Bolivar entered Peru with a Colombian army in 1822. Through his exertions the cause of independence regained the ascendency, and the deliverance of Peru from Spanish dominion was finally accomplished by the victory of Ayacucho, in December, 1824. Since this period, the government of Peru has gone through many changes. The country has a republican constitution, but is a prey to ambitious aspirants struggling for power.

Pistole, $3,75.

Quarter dollar, 20 cents.

Eight reals, $1.

½ real, 6 cents.

Real, 10 cents.

Eight reals, $1

BOLIVIA.

Doubloon, $15,60

The republic of Bolivia is situated between 12° and 25° 30′ south latitude, and 56° 30′ and 71° longitude west from Greenwich; and is bounded on the north by Brazil, on the east by Brazil and Paraguay, on the south by Buenos Ayres, and on the west by Peru and the Atlantic ocean. Its superficial area is about 320,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The western part of Bolivia is traversed by the great central chain of the Andes. Another chain passes to the east and northeast of Lake Titicaca. The great valley between these ridges is 13,000 feet above the sea. Some of the mountains of the eastern are the loftiest on the American continent. Sorato, near Lake Titicaca, is 25,400, and Illimani, 24,250 feet above the level of the sea. The eastern portion is very little above the level of the sea. A few isolated ranges of hills are scattered over it. The whole of this region is extremely fertile, but it is nearly in a state of nature, being covered with vast primeval forests.

Deserts.—The desert of Atacama occupies the country between the Andes and the Pacific: it extends for about 250 miles along the coast, having a variable breadth of from 30 to 60 miles. It is seldom refreshed by rain, and is almost as sterile and worthless as the Zahara: the only habitable parts are the narrow strips which skirt the rivers. To the west of Potosi is also a broad desert plain, and another to the southeast.

Rivers and Lakes.—The head-waters of the Amazon and the Plata descend from the table-lands of Bolivia. The Beni, Mamore, and some others, unite to form the Madeira, the principal confluent of the Amazon. The Pelcomayo, one of the principal tributaries of the Plata, waters the southern section of country. Another important river is the Desaguadero, the outlet of Lake Titicaca, and which, taking a southerly course, loses itself in the salt plains of Potosi. Lake Titicaca, which lies partly in Peru, occupies an area of 4,100 square miles, and is 13,000 feet above the level of the sea. In the eastern part of Bolivia are numerous lakes, some of them fifty and sixty miles in length.

Climate.—The climate of Bolivia is greatly diversified by elevation. In the desert of Atacama it seldom rains, and thunder and lightning are not known. In the vast plains east of the Andes the rainy season lasts from October to April; the remainder of the year has a cloudless sky. Hail-storms are frequent in the mountains, and earthquakes on the coast.

Political Divisions.—Bolivia is divided into the following departments: Potosi, Chuquisaca, Cochabamba, La Paz, Tarija, Cruro, and Santa Cruz de la Sierra; and these are subdivided into districts and parishes.

Cities and Chief Towns.—Chuquisaca (the capital), Potosi, Orepesa, La Paz, Tarija, Atacama, Cotagaita, Pomabamba, Tomina, Cochabamba, Santa Cruz, Zorota, Moja, Vehan, Tupiza, Lipiz, Torapaca, Cobija, and Oruro.

Productive Resources.—Agriculture in Bolivia is in a backward state. The products of the soil are similar to those of Peru. The mineral resources are extensive, and much celebrated. Gold is found in large quantities on the sides of the eastern chain of the Andes, and in the sands of the rivers flowing thence into the Beni and its tributaries. The famed silver mine of Potosi is in a conical-shaped mountain, 20 miles in circumference, and 4,475 feet above the surrounding country. It was discovered in 1545, and has been worked ever since. There are about 300 pits excavated, few more than 70

feet deep. Vaults 6 feet high, and 8 feet broad, are now dug horizontally into the mountain to meet the veins of silver. The enormous amount of silver extracted therefrom, since its discovery, is estimated at $2,000,000,000! Since the revolution, the produce has much diminished; but steam-engines are not here known, and it is supposed that by proper skill and management, Potosi might yield twenty to thirty million dollars' worth of silver annually.

Commerce.—The commerce of Bolivia is mostly inland. Its trade is principally with Peru, Buenos Ayres, and Paraguay, and its exports confined to the precious metals, the finer descriptions of wools, and other valuables.

Education.—Education in Bolivia is at a low ebb. A school system, however, has been lately introduced and organized, which it is hoped will dispel the clouds of ignorance and superstition which now enshroud the popular mind.

Population.—The population of Bolivia is estimated at 1,716,000, more than three fourths of which are aborigines, and the remainder foreigners of Spanish descent, Creoles, and negroes.

Eight reals, $1.

History.—This region formerly belonged to Peru, and subsequently was attached to the vice-royalty of Buenos Ayres. The present name of the republic was given in 1825, in honor of General Simon Bolivar, the South American liberator, and to him was intrusted its destinies. Generals Sucre, Velasco, Blanco, Santa Cruz, &c., have since successively filled the executive chair, but the country has continued to the present day the scene of constantly-recurring revolutions.

Two reals, 15 cents.

Four reals (base), 35 cents.

CHILI.

Doubloon, $15,60.

This republic, including Araucania, extends along the coast of the Pacific, from the desert of Atacoma on the north, in a direct line between the parallels of 25° and 43° 40′ (including the Chilian Archipelago), in length 1,230 miles in its remotest extremities. Inland it is separated from the pampas of the Argentine Republic by the cordilleras of the Andes. The breadth varies from 122 to 230 miles, according to the distance of the Andes from the seacoast. Its area is about 170,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—A plain of vast extent, rising gradually from the sea toward the Andes, watered and fertilized by innumerable streams or torrents. Between the foot of the Andes and the Pacific the country is divided into two parts, the maritime and the midland. The midland country is generally level, of great fertility, and possesses a delightful climate. The maritime is intersected by three minor mountain ridges, running parallel with the Andes.

Mountains.—The Andes, forming its eastern boundary, traverses the country from north to south. This chain, some of the summits of which here reach the altitude of 24,000 feet, exhibits every variety of grand, wild, and beautiful scenery. There are fourteen volcanoes in the Chilian Andes, in a constant state of eruption, and a large number which discharge only at intervals.

Bays, Rivers, and Lakes.—Chili has an extensive marine on the Pacific, which is indented with bays, affording safe harbor and anchorage. The most important harbors are those of Valparaiso, Valdivia, Conception, and Coquimbo. Few countries are so well watered as Chili. The melting of the snow on the Andes causes a perpetual flow of water down their slopes, and forms numerous rivers, serving the important purpose of irrigating the lands. They are more than one hundred in number, and about fifty disembogue into the ocean. The principal navigable rivers are, the Huasco, Lospentos, Maypu, Maule, Chillan, Ilata, Biobio, Callacatta, Imperial, and Valdivia. There are some small lakes, or rather lagunes, scattered over the country.

Islands.—The islands of the archipelago of Chiloe and Chonas belong to Chili. Those of the former are forty-seven in number, about two thirds of which are inhabited, the remainder being sterile, and unfit for cultivation. The islands of Juan Fernandez (the reputed residence of Juan Fernandez, whose adventures furnished the hint for the popular tale of Robinson Crusoe), about 400 miles from the coast, are also an appendage to Chili.

Climate.—Extending from north to south for sixteen degrees, with a very irregular surface, the temperature of the climate of Chili is consequently variable. In the valleys, especially in that of Copaibo, years pass over without rain falling. Further south, showers occur only during three or four years, after which a rainy season drenches these southern valleys. In Aconcagua, still further south, the number of rainy days do not generally exceed fourteen to twenty-one. South of the river Maypù rain falls sufficient for the cultivation of grain. At and near the river Biobio, rain falls regularly in winter, otherwise the sky is cloudless during six or seven months of the year ; south of that river the rains are irregular, and fall heavily. The regions where rain falls are covered with forests ; many of the trees afford excellent timber.

Political Divisions.—The republic is divided into eight departments, viz.: Santiago, Aconcagua, Coquimbo, Conchagua, Maule, Concepcion, Valdivia, and Chiloe.

Chief Cities and Towns.—Santiago is the capital of Chili. It is situated in a delightful plain, 90 miles from the seaboard. The population is about 80,000, chiefly of Spanish descent. The other principal cities and towns are, Valparaiso,* Copiapo, Curico, Cauquenes, Conception, Valdivia, San Carlos, Rosario, Colorado, Coquimbo, Ballenar, Caldera, Huasco, Lora, La Constitution, Negunche, Baluco, San Fernando, Castro, &c.

Productive Resources.—The principal are, grain, wine, oil, hemp, skins, horns, and fruits ; copper, gold, silver, iron, lead, and tin, and cubic nitre, are also obtainable. The copper mines are numerous, and, like those of gold, confined to no particular province. At least 1,000 copper mines are now open between Copiapo and Coquimbo. The quantity of this metal annually exported is in value about $1,500,000. The Spaniards derived immense sums from the gold mines of Chili. A railroad, from the excellent port of Caldera, extends to the rich mines of Copiapo, fifty-two miles.

* Valparaiso is the great seaport of Chili, and contains about 30,000 inhabitants. It is divided into two parts, one of which is known by the name of the Port, and is the old town ; the other by that of the Almendral, occupying a level plain to the east. Its location is by no means such as to show it to advantage. The principal buildings are, the customhouse, two churches, and the houses occupying the main street. Most of the buildings are of one story, and are built of adobes, or sun-dried brick. The walls of the buildings are from four to six feet thick. The reason of this mode of building is the frequent occurrence of earthquakes. The streets are well paved. The plaza has not much to recommend it. The government-house is an inferior building. Great improvements are now making, and many buildings in course of erection.

Manufactures.—The facility with which foreign manufactured goods can be imported into Chili, has discouraged the establishment of any important manufactures. A large portion of the population, however, wear homemade stuffs, especially woollen.

Commerce.—The commerce of Chili is large, and increasing; the exports in 1851 amounted to $12,000,000, and the imports to $15,000,000. Its exports are principally copper, silver, flour, beef, tallow, hides, and live stock. The settlement of California has opened a new market for some of the agricultural products of Chili.

Population.—According to a census in 1812 (the only one ever taken), the population of Chili was 1,200,000. At the present time it may be set down at about 1,400,000.

Government.—The government of Chili is that of a constitutional integral republic. The constitution vests the legislative power in a senate of twenty members, selected by electoral colleges for nine years, one third renewed triennially, and a house of deputies, elected directly by the people. The executive power is vested in a supreme director, elected for five years, and eligible for a second term only. Judges are appointed by the supreme director, and hold office during life, unless removed by a special tribunal for cause.

Pistole, $3,75.

History.—The northern districts of Chili were conquered provinces of the ancient Peruvian empire, but the Spaniards found it no easy task to extend their dominion over the Chilians, for, the further the Europeans proceeded to the southward, they encountered a more brave and determined foe. The Spaniards founded the city of Santiago in 1514, but were several times almost entirely exterminated, and one of their governors is said to have had molten gold poured down his throat by the exasperated Chilians. Hostilities continued with great ferocity for fifty years; many of the Spanish towns were taken, and all the inhabitants put to the sword; and even when the country finally became at last nominally subject to the crown of Spain, an Araucanian embassador resided at Santiago, and the equality of the native race was recognised by the Spanish settlers. In 1810, the Chilians commenced an insurrection against Spain, which was quelled in 1814. In 1817, the struggle was renewed, and General Mendoza, with an army of 4,000 Creoles and natives, after a gallant fight, defeated 5,000 Spaniards, and expelled them from the country. In 1818, the Spaniards returned, but were again defeated by the Chilians, under the command of San Martin, O'Higgins, and others. From 1819 to 1823, the Chilians were effectively aided by Admiral Cochrane, and finally achieved complete independence. A dictatorship was first created, but in 1828 a republic on a sound basis was established. The independence of Chili was finally recognised by Spain, in a treaty signed at Madrid, in 1844.

Araucania,—This tract of country, lying south of Chili proper, and extending from the Biobio river, in 36° 44′ south, to the plain of Valdivia, in 40° 38′ south, is very little known. Chili claims a nominal sovereignty over the country, though the natives have successfully resisted the attempts of the Spaniards, Chilians, or Peruvians, to destroy their independence. Valdivia is the chief town. Of the number of the inhabitants, their commerce, or productions, we have no precise intelligence. The government, a mixture of democracy and aristocracy, is complicated and refined; the people honest, truthful, and hospitable, and the climate salubrious.

THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

Doubloon, $15,60.

The Argentine Republic is a confederation of a number of independent states, formerly constituting the provinces of the Spanish royalty of Buenos Ayres. It is situated between 21° and 40° south latitude, and 54° and 70° longitude west from Greenwich. It is bounded on the north by Bolivia, on the east by Paraguay, Uruguay, and the Atlantic ocean, on the south by Patagonia and the Atlantic ocean, and on the west by Chili, which is separated from it by the Andes. Its superficial area is about 900,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect—The northern and northwestern sections of territory are mountainous; but the remainder, comprising at least five sixths of the territory, consists of plains, with some scattered hills, scarcely 500 feet in height. On the southwest are the wide plains known as the pampas. These immense plains extend westward from the banks of the Paraguay to the frontiers of Los Chacas, northward to the northern part of the province of Cordova, and southward far into Patagonia. They are nearly 1,500 miles in length, and from 300 to 500 miles in width. Over this immense space scarce a tree or shrub is to be found. There are neither hills nor eminences, and the undulations are so gentle, as only to be perceived by taking a long view over its surface. The keen winds, called "*pamperos*," sweep over this unsheltered space without the least obstruction. The surface of the earth appears to be a soft, black, rich soil, without stone, gravel, or sand, but on the banks of some of the rivers, and in some other places, reddish clay seems to form the superficial crust. The pampas are principally useful for pasturage; they support numerous herds of horned cattle, horses, mules, and sheep; deer, ostriches, and wild dogs, also abound.

Rivers and Lakes.—The Rio de la Plata (or the River of Silver) and its tributaries comprise the principal streams of the Argentine Republic. This river is 2,500 miles long, and has the largest volume of water of any river in the world, except the Amazon. It is formed by the junction of the Paraguay, Parana, and Uruguay. The Parana, or main branch, rises in Brazil, and has a course of upward of 2,000 miles. The principal western branches of the Paraguay and La Plata are the Pilcomayo, the Vermejo, and the Salado. The Saladillo, and numerous smaller streams, also flow from the west into the La Plata. The Rio Colorado, and Rio Negro, large rivers, flow directly into the Atlantic. The great bay of the La Plata is the most extensive in the world, and affords capacious harbors to Buenos Ayres and Montevideo. There are several lakes in the country, the principal of which are, Xarayes, Iberi, Ybera or Caraceres, Aguascati, Numbucu, and others. Ybera is about 100 miles long by 40 broad; it receives neither brooks nor springs, and is entirely nourished by the filtration of the waters of the Parana.

Climate.—At the north the summers are long and hot. At the south it is more cold, but nowhere severely so. The climate is moist, and in the southern provinces the winds are violent, and thunder and lightning very severe. The keen winds, before referred to, called pamperos, which sweep over the pampas without obstruction, blow with great fury.

Productive Resources.—Wheat, maize, cocoa, grapes, cotton, flax, Paraguay tea, wine, brandy, horses, cattle, horns, tallow, and hides; for the latter large droves of horses are killed. They wander wild in immense herds over the

pampas. The precious metals, with copper, lead, iron, &c., are found in different parts of the country. Salt is the most abundant mineral. Epsom and glauber salts, limestone, gypsum, alum, mineral pitch, and sulphur, are found in the vicinity of the Andes. Pouches, saddle-cloths, blankets, morocco, leather, wooden bowls and dishes, compose the chief articles of manufacture.

Commerce.—The foreign commerce of the country is principally confined to the port of Buenos Ayres.* The exports consist principally of hides, horse-hair, wool, tallow, ostrich-feathers, preserved meats, horns, bones, &c., and are in value about $8,000,000 annually. The imports are principally cotton and woollen fabrics, some of the produce of the West Indies, and the United States and Europe.

Political Divisions.—The Argentine Republic is divided as follows:—

Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Buenos Ayres	Buenos Ayres.	Salta	Salta.
Santa Fe	Santa Fe.	Catamarca	Catamarca.
Entre Rios	Parana.	Rioja	Rioja.
Corrientes	Corrientes.	San Luis	San Luis.
Cordova	Cordova.	Mendoza	Mendoza.
Santiago	Santiago.	San Juan	San Juan.
Tucuman	Tucuman.	Gran Chaco (the Indian Territory).	

Population.—The population of the Argentine Republic is variously estimated, at from 1,200,000 to 1,800,000, the larger proportion of whom are native Indians. The remainder are Spaniards, Creoles and negroes.

Education.—Education, as may be supposed, is not very flourishing in the provinces; but in the chief towns it is not, upon the whole, so backward as in some other parts of South America. Cordova has a university, and Buenos Ayres a good public library. Newspapers are published in several towns.

¼ Pistole, 22 cents.

History.—The discovery of the country now known by the name of the Argentine Republic, is claimed by the Spaniards. Juan Diaz de Salis, having sailed from Spain, in 1515, to explore Brazil, arrived at the mouth of the Rio de la Plata, and took formal possession of the country. The city of Buenos Ayres was founded in 1535. The Spanish settlers intermarried with the Indians, which first produced that mixed race called *Mestizoes* now so common in South America. This colony was first attached to the government of Peru. The Jesuits established their missions here in the seventeenth century, and met with great success in converting the natives to catholicism. In 1778, Buenos Ayres was separated from Peru, and erected into a viceroyalty. In 1806, when Spain was at war with Great Britain, the British sent an expedition which captured the city of Buenos Ayres; but they were expelled after holding it fifteen days. In 1810, the inhabitants rose in insurrection against the Spanish authorities, and, after various fluctuations of fortune, an independent government was established. The government was nominally a representative republic, each of the provinces being, to a certain degree, independent of the rest, and in the enjoyment of their own executive and legislative authorities. From that time the country has been known as the Argentine Republic. In 1835, Don Juan Manuel Rosas was called to the presidency; but he refused to act unless invested for a period with extraordinary powers. These were ac-

* Buenos Ayres, the capital and chief commercial city of the Argentine Republic, is situated on the river La Plata, 125 miles from Montevideo. It is built upon a bank, from fifteen to twenty feet above the level of the river. Including its suburbs, it extends north and south for upward of two miles, with a breadth in its centre of about one and a half miles. It is built on a uniform plan; the streets, which are all straight, intersect each other at right angles at every 150 yards, dividing it into a number of squares, each having an area of about four acres. The principal streets, which were once all but impassable in wet weather, while in the dry season they were obscured with clouds of dust, are now well paved, and provided with footpaths on either side. Taste and opulence are manifested in the streets and houses. Buenos Ayres is very defective as a commercial port; there is no harbor, and the water is so shallow that a frigate can not approach within eight or ten miles. It has neither moles nor docks, nor any facilities for landing. In general carts with high wheels are used for landing persons from boats. It has about 80,000 inhabitants.

cordingly granted him, and from that day he became the absolute dictator of the Argentine Republic. He succeeded in affirming his power, affecting always to hold it only at the will of the people. He would often repeat the ill-disguised farce of sending his resignation to the chamber of representatives, when a single vote in favor of its acceptance would have been followed by the assassination of him who had the temerity to cast it. His despotic and tyrannical sway, and particularly his arbitrary attempt to force a governor upon the independent republic of Uruguay, incited a powerful feeling against him, and a determination to drive him from power. On the 3d of February, 1852, being defeated in a battle with the forces under General Urquisa, he fled the country, leaving Urquisa in complete and absolute control of the destinies of the country. This country has been known, since its independence, under the various names of United Provinces of South America, United Provinces of La Plata, Buenos Ayres, and Argentine Republic.

PARAGUAY.

This province is situated between 19° and 28° south latitude, and 53° and 59° longitude west from Greenwich; and is bounded on the north and east by Brazil, on the south by Uruguay and the Argentine Republic, and on the west by the Argentine Republic and Bolivia. Its superficial area is about 80,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—Paraguay is an inland peninsula, enclosed east and south by the Parana, and its tributary the Yajnari, and west and northwest by the rivers Paraguay and Blanco. A mountain chain, the Sierra Amambahy, enters Paraguay on the north, runs through it near its centre to near latitude 26° and then divides into two branches, including the basin of the Tibiquari. Extensive marshes abound in the west. Paraguay, in point of fertility, forms a striking and favorable contrast to the adjacent parts of the Argentine Republic. It is well-wooded, and diversified with undulating hills and verdant vales.

Rivers.—From the undivided mountain chain many rivers flow on either side to join the Parana or Paraguay; but none of them require any special notice, though in the rainy season they are all swollen so as to inundate a considerable extent of country. There is but one lake, that of Ypao, worth mentioning.

Climate.—The climate is temperate, but damp, resembling, in a great measure, that of Buenos Ayres on the seaboard.

Chief Towns.—Assumption, or Asunçion, situated eighteen miles above the junction of the Pilcamayo with the Paraguay, is the capital. The other principal towns are, Villa Rica, and Neembucu.

Productive Resources.—Among the agricultural products are, cotton, tobacco, sugarcane, rice, Indian corn, and the Yerba maté, or Paraguay tea.* Horse and cattle breeding is carried on to a considerable extent. The prohibition of foreign commerce has excited the exercise of ingenuity, and manufactures of cotton, wool, &c., are now produced to some extent. No mines are wrought.

Commerce.—While a dependency of Spain, 8,000,000 pounds of Paraguay tea, and about 1,000,000 pounds of tobacco, besides large quantities of timber, cotton, sugar, &c., were exported. But under the dictator Francia trade was

* The Yerba mate, or Paraguay tea, is the leaf of the Ilex Paraguayensis, an evergreen about the size of an orange-tree, growing wild, and in great abundance, in the dense forests in the north and east provinces, to which the natives resort in great numbers for its collection. It is difficult to penetrate the country where it is found; but the profits derived from the articles are ample, Paraguay tea being in as general demand through the Argentine Republic, Chili, and many parts of Peru, as the teas of China are in Europe and the United States.

almost wholly suspended, he wishing to make the people depend entirely on their own internal resources for support.

Education.—Public schools are distributed throughout Paraguay, and it is a rare occurrence to find a freeman who can not read and write.

Population.—The population of Paraguay is variously stated. By some authorities it is placed as low as 150,000, and by others as high as 300,000. The true figure probably lies between these numbers. The inhabitants consist of Spaniards, Indians, negroes, and the mixed races springing from the amalgamation of these original stocks.

History.—Paraguay was discovered in 1526, by Sebastian Cabot. The Jesuits afterward established many missions in the southern part of the country; and were supposed to have effected astonishing improvements in the condition and habits of the natives; but no sooner had they been expelled in 1768, than the Indians relapsed into their former barbarism. In 1776, Paraguay became a province of the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres. In 1810, the Buenos Ayrean revolutionary troops were defeated by the Paraguayans; but the latter soon afterward deposed their governor, and, in 1813, proclaimed Paraguay a republic under two consuls. In 1814, the second consul, Dr. Francia was made sole dictator for three years, and at the expiration of that term, for life. In 1826, Francia declared Paraguay independent, and its independence was formally recognised by the emperor of Brazil in 1827. Francia introduced order, industry, and the arts, but excluded foreigners from the country. This extraordinary man ruled over Paraguay with despotic sway till 1842, when he died, at about eighty years of age. After the death of Dr. Francia, the government of a junta of five was established. Subsequently that number was reduced to three, and now to a dictator, named Lopez, who is said to be a man of great ability.

URUGUAY.

The republic of Uruguay, sometimes known by the designation of Montevideo, its capital city, is situated on the northeast bank of the Plata river, between 26° and 35° south latitude, and 52° and 59° longitude west from Greenwich. It is bounded on the south by the Plata river for 335 miles, on the east by the Atlantic for 240 miles to the Rio Grande de Sul de San Pedro, on the north and northeast by the Brazilian territory, and on the west by the Uruguay river. Its superficial area is 75,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The coast presents the aspect of a low, flat plain, without wood of any kind, and as far as the eye can reach quite level in appearance with the water. Inland, however, and particularly in the north, the country is intersected by many hill-ranges, alternating with valleys, traversed by considerable affluents of the Uruguay. In this territory, the humidity of the soil, which is watered by numerous rivers, is corrected by the *pampero*, a remarkably dry wind.

Rivers.—The country is traversed by the Rio Negro, and other tributaries of the Uruguay.

Climate.—The climate of Uruguay is proverbially healthy, and it is evident that the thinness of the population must arise from the mode of life followed by the settlers, or from political causes, and not from any deficient fertility of the soil, or other natural or necessary cause.

Departments and Towns.—It is divided into nine departments, and possesses three principal towns, Montevideo, La Colonia, and Maldonado, fifteen

small towns, and eight hamlets, without including estancias or farms, and ranchos or cottages. Montevideo, having a better port and as good a government, bids fair to become a city of greater trade and wealth than its opposite rival, Buenos Ayres.

Productive Resources.—The agricultural products are, wheat, maize, beans, melons, and most of the fruits of temperate climates. Cattle and horses form the principal wealth of the inhabitants, and their hides, hair, jerked beef, tallow, &c., the principal exports. Granite and limestone rocks prevail in the more elevated regions, aad jasper and chalcedony are met with. In manufactures no progress has been made.

Population.—The population of Uruguay is variously estimated at from from 120,000 to 200,000, chiefly of Spanish descent, although many foreigners are now naturalized in the republic.

History.—This country was formally known by the name of the Banda Oriental, or Eastern Shore, in relation to its position on the eastern bank of the Rio de la Plata. It was first settled by Spaniards from Buenos Ayres, and remained a province under that government till 1821, when it was taken by the Brazilians, and incorporated with Brazil under the title of province Cisplatina. In 1825, however, it declared itself independent; and its independence was recognised in 1828, by a treaty between Brazil and La Plata. A constitution was then formed, erecting Uruguay into an integral republic. Fructuoso Rivera was the first president. He was succeeded, in 1835, by Manuel Oribe, who rendering himself obnoxious to the people, was obliged to resign, and Rivera reassumed power, and proclaimed himself dictator. In 1840, war broke out between Uruguay and the Argentine Republic, in consequence of the dictator Rosas attempting to replace Oribe in the presidential chair of Uruguay. This was continued with varying success down to 1852, when the invasion of the Argentine Republic by Urquisa, the total defeat of Rosas, and his flight from the country, restored peace and quiet again to the Uraguayans.

PATAGONIA.

This extensive and little known region is bounded on the east by the Atlantic, west by the Pacific, and south by the straits of Magellan, which separate the main land from Tierra del Fuego and the adjacent islands, and on the north by the Buenos Ayres territory. Its superficial area is estimated at 200,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—Little is known of these regions beyond the mere outline of the coast. The west coast is abrupt, very much broken, and skirted by a great number of irregularly-shaped islands. The east coast has been more explored. The surface of the country appears to rise from the Atlantic to the Andes, in a succession of steppes or terraces, all of which are alike arid and sterile, the upper soil, consisting chiefly of marine gravelly deposites, covered with coarse, wiry grass. No wood is seen larger than a small thorny shrub, fit only for the purposes of fuel, except on the banks of a few of the rivers, subject to inundation, when herbage and some trees are occasionally found. This sterility prevails over the whole extent of the plain country of Patagonia, the complete similarity of which, almost in every part, is one of its most striking characteristics.

Mountains.—The Andine chain is continued from Chili throughout Patagonia, gradually declining in height, and on reaching the Magellan straits the

mountains are not more than 3,000 to 4,000 feet high, which is here the limit of perpetual snow. There are several known active volcanoes.

Rivers and Lakes.—The principal rivers in Patagonia fall into the Atlantic, having their sources at the eastern slopes of the Andes, and flowing in a southeasterly direction. Among them are the Rio Negro, 700 miles long, the Camerones, the Desire, and the Chupat rivers. The lakes are numerous. Otway and Skyring (inlets of the sea, rather than lakes) are fifty and thirty miles in length.

Climate.—The climate of Patagonia is much colder than in the north, under the same parallels of latitude, which is imputed to the tops of the Andes, which traverse it, being covered with snow.

Population.—Scanty, some say only a few thousands, living in distinct tribes, and roaming in a savage state over the immense wastes. There are said to be two marked classes; the *Puelches* or Patagons, which inhabit the higher lands, and the *Huilliches*, the plains. The former are tall of stature, fond of the chase, and, like the Tartars, frequently change their place of abode. Their stature ranges from six to seven feet. Falconer, the missionary, measured a cacique or chief of the Tehuels, and found him seven and a half feet high. Their bulkiness is great—four feet four inches round the breast has been measured; their strength is enormous. War is their great delight; they are divided into bands of horse and foot, and when they have no antinational foe, they fight desperately among themselves. They do not appear to have any religion, but venerate the sun and moon; and on killing an ox, they sprinkle some of the blood on the ground, using the words, "Give me and my people to eat." Great attention is paid to sepulchral rites. Their heads are large, face broad and flattish; their eyes are lively, and their features not disagreeable; their skin of a copper, or pale yellow color; their hair thin, black, straight, and tied on the top of the head with a piece of thong; their beards are scanty. Their garments are cloak-skins, leather-breeches, and boots made of the skins of the legs of the horse, taken off whole, and sewed up at one end.

History.—Patagonia was discovered by Magellan, in 1519. The badness of its harbors, which are mostly difficult and dangerous of access, and afford little or no security for vessels above the size of a brig, has hindered the formation of any European settlement, except at Port St. Julian, about latitude 49° 10′ south, and longitude 67° 40′ west, where the Spaniards settled about 1779, but speedily abandoned the establishment. A few expeditions have been undertaken to the interior in the last century, and latterly by the officers of the Adventure, principally up the larger rivers; but the coasts are rarely frequented by any other than whaling vessels, and the nature of the country is such as to give little hope of its soon emerging from its present state of savage barbarism.

SOUTH AMERICAN ISLANDS.

Tierra del Fuego.—Opposite to the southern boundary of Patagonia, and separated from the continent by the long, narrow, winding passage, known as Magellan's strait, extends the dreary region of Tierra del Fuego. Narrow straits, crowded with islets, divide it into three parts, of which the most eastern, and much the largest, is called King Charles's Land; the middle, and smallest, Clarence Island; the most westerly, Desolation Land. Staten Land, another large island, lies off the eastern coast, from which it is separated by the straits of Le Maire. One of the islands belonging to the group, called Hermit,

is remarkable as containing Cape Horn, the most southerly point of America, and facing directly the wastes of the ocean which surround the Antarctic pole. It was once deemed "infamous for tempests;" but it is now found that in a proper season Cape Horn may be passed with little danger, and it is commonly preferred to the winding and difficult channel of Magellan. The Petcherais, who inhabit Tierra del Fuego, are a handful of miserable savages, in the lowest state of wretchedness, and subsisting solely by the shell-fish which they pick up on the shore. The Spaniards made an early attempt to form a settlement at Port Famine, in the middle of the strait, but could not maintain it.

Falkland Islands.—This group of islands in the Southern Pacific, called Malouïne by the French, and Maluinas by the Spaniards, is situated between 51° and 53° south latitude, and 57° and 62° west longitude. They were discovered by Captain Davis, who sailed under the command of Sir Thomas Cavendish, in 1592. Two years after they were visited by Sir Richard Hawkins, who named them Hawkins's Maiden Land. In 1598, Sebald de Waert, who commanded a ship in Van Nooit's squadron, met with the group, and called them Sebaldine islands. For nearly a century no notice was taken of them; in 1689, Captain Strong saw the land, and called them Falkland islands. There are two principal islands, the East and West Falkland, with a considerable number of others of different sizes, clustered around them and in the straits between them. The mountains in these islands are not very lofty: the soil on the heights adjacent to the sea is composed of a dark vegetable mould; copper pyrites, yellow and red ochre, are found below the surface. Pernetty observed a natural amphitheatre, formed by regular layers of porphyritic sandstone. No wood grows on these islands; the Spaniards were at the trouble of bringing plants from Buenos Ayres, but their labor was vain, for every tree perished in a short time. The gladiolus, or sword-grass, is very common, and rises to a great height: when seen at a distance, it has the appearance of a verdant thicket. The grass is luxuriant; celery, cresses, and other herbs, have been noticed by travellers. The vegetables are not unlike those of Canada; but the *epipactis*, the *tithymalus resinosus*, and a shrub which resembles the rosemary, are much similar to the plants of Chili. A great variety of seals, to which the common people have given the name of sea-lions, sea-calves, and sea-wolves, bask in the sword-grass. The Spaniards brought 800 head of oxen to these islands in the year 1780, and they increased so rapidly that their number amounted to 8,000 in 1795. These islands are unoccupied, but nominally belong to Great Britain. The Argentine Republic, however, prefers a substantial claim to sovereignty over them.

Georgia.—This island, situated about 1,260 miles east of Cape Horn, consists of horizontal layers of black slate stone. The rocks are generally covered with ice, and no shrub can pierce through the perpetual snow that lies in the valleys; pimpernel, a few lichens, and some tufts of short grass, are all the plants that have been observed; and the lark is the only land-bird which has been seen on the island. It was discovered by La Roche, in 1675, and afterward explored by Captain Cook, in 1775, who gave it its present name.

South Shetland Islands.—These, and several other groups of islands, extending from 58° to 64° south latitude, were discovered in 1820. They contain little worthy of notice. The low grounds are sterile, and the hills and rocks are covered with eternal snows. The seas in the vicinity abound with seals and other animals common to the Antarctic regions. Recent observations made by the United States exploring expedition render it probable that similar islands extend to the southern pole.

EUROPE.

Europe, the most important and most civilized division of the globe, is situated between 10° west and 70° east longitude from Greenwich, and 34° and 71° north latitude; and is bounded on the north by the Arctic ocean, on the south by the Mediterranean, the Black sea, and the Caucasian mountains, on the east by the Uralian mountains, the river Ural, and the Caspian sea, and on the west by the Atlantic. The extreme length, from southwest to northeast (from Gibraltar to the meridian of 70°), is about 3,600 miles, and the extreme breadth, from the Caspian sea to the westernmost part of Ireland, is about 3,000 miles. The direct distance from north to south, or from North cape, on the Arctic sea, to Cape Matapan, in the Morea, is about 2,400 miles. The boundary lines between Europe and Asia are not accurately defined. The area of Europe has been various calculated: by Pinkerton, at 2,500,000 square miles; by Bell, at 3,450,000; by Kitchen, at 3,258,038; by Hassel, at 3,331,579; by Crome, at 3,796,249; by Butler, at 3,825,395. It constitutes about a sixteenth part of the terrestrial surface of the globe.

Physical Aspect.—A great plain extends from Holland, eastward through Northern Germany, Poland, and over the greater part of Russia toward the Uralian mountains, where the land rises in successive steppes, or elevated plains; this extensive region is so low, that if the waters of the Atlantic were to rise 1,500 feet above their present level, the whole of northern continental Europe, excepting the mountainous districts of Norway would be submerged. The southern part of Europe is more or less elevated; the general dip of the land is from south to north. The highest regions are those of Switzerland and Savoy, where the Alpine chain attains the greatest altitude at Mont Blanc. Europe has no desert at all similar to those of the other great divisions of the globe. There are, however, some very extensive heaths or wastes. The principal are, the steppes of Ryn, between the Volga and Ural, and of the Volga, between that river and the Don; the *puztas* of Hungary, the wilds of Sweden, Norway, and Lapland, the sterile districts of Stade, Hanover, Luneburg, and Zell, in the kingdom of Hanover; and of Pomerania, Brandenburg, &c., in Prussia.

Mountains.—The principal ranges of mountains in Europe are the Scandinavian or Dofrafield range, the Pyrenees, Alps, Apennines, and Carpathians. The Scandinavian chain commences at the southern extremity of Norway, and, running north, soon becomes the boundary between Sweden and Norway. The Pyrenees run in an easterly direction, from the southern part of the Bay of Biscay to the Mediterranean, forming the boundary between France and Spain. The Alps, the loftiest mountains in Europe, form the western and northern boundary of Italy, separating it from France, Switzerland, and Germany. The Apennines commence near the Mediterranean, at the southwestern extremity, and pursuing an easterly course around the gulf of Genoa, turn to the southeast, and pass in that direction to the southern extremity of Italy. The Carpathian mountains encircle Hungary on three sides, separating it from Germany on the northwest, from Galicia on the northeast, and from Turkey on the southeast. At the southern extremity of the range a branch proceeds in a southerly direction across the Danube, to the centre of European Turkey, connecting the Carpathian mountains with the great eastern branch of the Alps.

Peninsulas, Capes, &c.—Having so irregular an outline, Europe necessarily presents numerous peninsulas and headlands. In the south the principal

EUROPE
Scale of Miles
100 200 300 400 500
ATLANTIC OCEAN
ARCTIC OCEAN
GREENLAND
ICELAND
Reikiavik
Geysers
Mt Hecla
Faroe Isles
Shetland Isles
Orkneys
Hebrides Is.
BRITISH ISLES
IRELAND
DUBLIN
SCOTLAND
EDINBURG
ENGLAND
LONDON
Liverpool
Land's End
English Chan.
Bay of Biscay
C. Finisterre
Oporto
PORTUGAL
LISBON
SPAIN
MADRID
Valencia
Carthagena
Malaga
Cadiz
St. Vincent C.
Str. of Gibraltar
Gibraltar
Madeira Is.
Barbary
Algiers
Tunis
Tripoli
AFRICA
Bergen
Christiana
Skagerrack
Cattegat
Gottenburg
STOCKHOLM
Dronthein
Ostersund
Sweden
Denmark
Hamburg
Lubec
Bremen
Amsterdam
Rotterdam
Brussels
Ostend
Calais
Dover
Dieppe
Havre
Rouen
PARIS
Orleans
Nantes
Loire R.
Bordeaux
Toulouse
Garonne R.
Rhone R.
Marseilles
Barcelona
Genoa
Leghorn
Rome
Naples
Mt. Vesuvius
Sardinia
Palermo
Sicily
Str. of Messina
Malta
Candia
Cyprus
Suez
CAIRO
Lofoden Isles
Maelstrom
North Cape
Tornea
Lapland
Finland
Abo
Gulf of Bothnia
L. Onega
L. Ladoga
Gulf of Finland
ST PETERSBURG
Novgorod
Riga
Duna R.
Revel
Tver
Moscow
Jaroslav
Vologda
Viatka
Kasan
Perm
Ural Mountains
Arctic Circle
Archangel
Dwina R.
Yarensk
Lobisken
Simbirsk
Orenburg
Ural R.
Saratov
Volga R.
Don R.
Tambov
Voronetz
Kursk
Tchernigov
Poltava
Smolensk
Tula
Oret
Wilna
Warsaw
Mogilleu
Kiev
Dnieper R.
Cracow
POLAND
RUSSIA
Vienna
Buda
Hermanstadt
AUSTRIA
Venice
Trieste
Milan
Turin
Switzerland
Danube R.
Belgrade
TURKEY
Adrianople
Salonica
Cherson
Odessa
Taganrog
Crimea
Sea of Azof
Astrachan
Circassia
Caucasus Mts.
Black Sea
Bosphorus Str.
CONSTANTINOPLE
Sea of Marmora
Str. of the Dardanelles
Archipelago
Greece
Asia Minor
Lon. West
Lon. E. from Greenwich

peninsulas are, Spain, with Portugal; Italy, with its sub-peninsulas of Calabria and Otranto; Turkey, with Greece, which includes the sub-peninsulas of the Morea and Salonica, and the Crimea. In the north of Europe, the great Scandinavian peninsula, and those of Lapland and Jutland, are the principal; and in the west are the much less considerable ones of Brittany and Cotentin, in France, and that including the counties of Devon and Cornwall, in England. The principal capes or headlands, proceeding from north to south, are, Cape Gelania, in Nova Zembla; the North cape and the Naze, in Norway; Cape Skagen, in Denmark; Cape Wrath, in Scotland; the Land's End, in England; Cape Clear, in Ireland; Capes La Hogue and Finisterre, in France; Roca, St. Vincent, and the rock of Gibraltar, in Spain and Portugal; Spartivento and Leuca, in Italy; Passaro, in Sicily; and Matapan and Colonna, in Greece.

Islands.—The principal, forming part of Europe (Iceland being excluded), are, Great Britain and Ireland, with their dependent groups in the Atlantic and North sea; Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica, Candia, the Cyclades and Sporades, the Ionian islands, Dalmatian archipelago, Malta, Elba, Majorca, Minorca, Ivica, the Lipari isles, &c., in the Mediterranean and its cognate seas; Zealand, Funen; Laland, Bornholm, Oland, Gottland, Œzel Dagg, and the Aland archipelago, in the Baltic; the Loffoden and other islands, on the coast of Norway; Nova Zembla, in the Arctic ocean; Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, &c., in the British channel; Ushant, Belleisle, and a few others, on the west coast of France; and perhaps the Azores in the Atlantic, and Lampedusa, Linosa, &c., in the Mediterranean.

Seas.—The number and extent of the inland seas in Europe have greatly contributed to its civilization. The Mediterranean, connected with the Atlantic by the straits of Gibraltar on the east, and with the Euxine or Black sea by the Dardanelles on the west, is about 2,500 miles in length from east to west, with a varying breadth (from Marseilles to Algiers of about 500 miles); the area covered, including the two great inlets of the Adriatic or gulf of Venice, and the Ægean or Archipelago, is 800,000 square miles. The rich coast line, the numerous islands, the capacious harbors, and the delicious climate, render this almost inland lake the finest navigable water in the world. The Black sea is about 750 miles in length from east to west, and including the connected sea of Azof, it extends 400 miles from north to south; area covered, 230,000 square miles. The Baltic or Eastern sea, including the gulfs of Bothnia and Finland, covers an area of 150,000 square miles, and has an average depth of sixty fathoms. From the head of the gulf of Bothnia to the south coast of Denmark the distance is more than 1,000 miles. The White sea, in the north of Europe, is about 400 miles in length, from the north point of Kamskai to the south coast; it is but little known. The North sea or German ocean, which separates Great Britain from the continent of Europe, is but a part of the great Atlantic ocean, as is also the English channel. The German ocean covers 153,000 square miles; greatest depth on the coast of Norway, 190 fathoms; mean depth, 30.

Bays and Gulfs.—The chief of these are the gulf or sea of Kara, in Northern Russia; the bays of Archangel and Onega, belonging to the White sea; the gulfs of Bothnia, Finland, and Riga, belonging to the Baltic; the bay of Biscay, forming a part of the Atlantic; the gulf of Lyons, in the south of France; those of Genoa, Naples, Taranto, Venice (head of the Adriatic), and Trieste, in Italy; of Arta, Lepanta, Egina, Volo, and Saloniki, in Greece.

Lakes.—The lakes are numerous. Ladoga and Onega, in Russia, are the largest; Ladoga covers about 6,400 square miles; Onega, 3,300. The other lakes are situated principally in the mountainous parts of Sweden, Switzerland, Northern Italy, Germany, and the United Kingdom.

Rivers.—The Ural, Volga, Dneiper, Danube, Don, Rhine, Elbe, Loire, Odor, Rhone, Garonne, Guadalquiver, Tagus, Seine, Ebro, Po, Douro, Thames, Shan-

non, Severn, and Clyde. The numerous seas, gulfs, bays, lakes, and rivers, are the means of supplying Europe with a larger quantity and greater variety of fish than is known in any other part of the globe.

CLIMATE.—The greater part of Europe is within the temperate zone, between the parallels of 35° and 60°; not more than a twelfth part of its surface is within the polar circle: owing probably to the extent of water, to the more general habitation, clearing, and cultivation of the country, the northern parts of Europe are much cooler than similar latitudes in America. The Arctic district extends over about 400,000 square miles; the region next in temperature, over 1,500,000 square miles; the still warmer over 1,000,000 square miles; and the warmest, or region of perpetual spring, over 400,000 square miles.

POPULATION.—Europe was originally inhabited by the Celts in the west and south; by the Fins in the northeast; and by the Laps or Laplanders, a diminutive race, in the furthest north. The Scythians or Goths, from Asia, drove the Celts before them, and their descendants occupy the greatest portion of Europe. The Sarmatian or Sclavonian tribes entered European Russia from Asia, and were the ancestors of the Russians, Poles, and some Germans; the Heruli, also an Asiatic race, akin to the Sclavonians, have their descendants in Prussia, Lithuania, Courland, and Livonia. The Iberi passed into Spain from Mauritania and Northern Africa; and the Hungarians and Turks, at a more recent date, occupied the southeast of Europe, into which they passed from Asia Minor. A thousand years ago Northern, Central, and Eastern Europe were thinly peopled. In 1828, Malte-Brun estimated the inhabitants at 205,000,000; the Weimar Almanac, for 1837, stated the number at 232,200,649; and in 1844, at 241,252,653. In 1852, the population of Europe may probably reach 260,000,000, which, on an area of 3,800,000 square miles, shows 68 mouths to each square mile. The inhabitants of Germanic blood are estimated at 80,000,000; those of Romant at 70,000,000; Sclavonian, at 60,000,000; Finnic, at 30,000,000; Magyars, at 4,000,000; and Turks, Tartars, Circassians, and other races, in small numbers.

TABLE OF THE EXTENT AND POPULATION OF THE DIFFERENT STATES OF EUROPE.

	Name.	Extent in Square Miles.	Population.	Religion.	Form of Government.	Chief City.	Population of City.
Great Britain.	England	50,396	16,899,268	Protestant	Kingdom	London	2,363,141
	Wales	7,425	1,011,656	Protestant		Merthyr Tydfil	76,813
	Scotland	29,744	2,870,784	Protestant		Edinburgh	162,403
	Ireland	31,531	6,515,794	Catholic		Dublin	240,300
France		207,252	35,781.628	Catholic	Empire	Paris	1,053,262
Holland, with Luxemburg		13,616	3,206,804	Catholic	Kingdom	Amsterdam	207,000
Belgium		12,569	4,335,319	Catholic	Kingdom	Brussels	134,260
Saxony		5,705	1,836,433	Protestant	Kingdom	Dresden	69,500
Hanover		14,600	1,773,711	Protestant	Kingdom	Hanover	28,900
Bavaria		28,435	4,504,874	Catholic	Kingdom	Munich	106.530
Wirtemberg		7.568	1,743,827	Catholic	Kingdom	Stuttgard	40.000
30 Smaller German States*		32,892	6,287,601			Hamburg	153,000
Switzerland		15,230	2,365,286	Protestant	Republic	Berne	18,000
Austria		255,000	31,000,864	Catholic	Empire	Vienna	370,000
Lombardo-Venetian States		34,375	4,803,289	Catholic / Catholic	Kingdom	Milan / Venice	185.000 / 103,000
Kingdom of Sardinia		29,167	4,650,368	Catholic	Kingdom	Turin	120.000
Papal States		17,494	2,898,115	Catholic	Popedom	Rome	150,000
Two Sicilies		41,906	8,423,316	Catholic	Kingdom	Naples	336,300
Tuscany with Lucca		9.177	1,786,875	Catholic	Grand Duchy	Florence	98,000
Modena		2,129	513,343	Catholic	Duchy	Modena	27,000
Parma		2,274	496,803	Catholic	Duchy	Parma	36,000
San Marino		21	7,600	Catholic	Republic	San Marino	5,000
Spain		182,708	13,732,000	Catholic	Kingdom	Madrid	236,000
Portugal		35,268	3,412,500	Catholic	Kingdom	Lisbon	275,000
Turkey in Europe		189,920	11,000,000	Greek	Empire	Constantinople	550,000
Greece		18,244	856,470	Greek	Kingdom	Athens	18,000
Prussia		107,300	16,112,948	Protestant	Kingdom	Berlin	291,000
Russia		2,120,397	60,708,102	Greek	Empire	St. Petersburgh	470,000
Sweden		170,096	3,138.884	Protestant	Kingdom	Stockholm	80,000
Norway		122,008	1,167,766	Protestant	Kingdom	Christiana	22 000
Denmark		21,856	2,243,136	Protestant	Kingdom	Copenhagen	120,000
Totals		3,816,303	256,085,364				

* See Germany for names, &c., of these States

THE BRITISH ISLANDS.

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland is favorably situated in the Atlantic ocean, on the western side of Europe, bounded on the north and west by the Atlantic, on the east by the North sea, and on the south by the English channel, which separates it from France. Ireland is divided from Great Britain by St. George's channel. Great Britain lies between 50° and 59° north latitude; its extreme length is 600 miles, its greatest breadth 370 miles, and, including the irregular windings and indentations of the coast, it has a circuit of about 3,000 miles. Ireland lies between 51° and 55° north latitude, and is 300 miles in length from northeast to southwest. The Orkney and Shetland isles are to the north of Scotland; the Hebrides to the northwest; the Isle of Man is in the Irish sea and St. George's channel.

Physical Aspect.—The physical features of England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, vary in several particulars. The southern parts of England and Wales are flat or undulating, the northern districts elevated, and in Wales mountainous. Southern Scotland is low; the central, northern and western parts bold and mountainous. Ireland, except in the central provinces, is hilly and mountainous. The scenery throughout the kingdom is very diversified, and within the limits of these islands may be found (as is generally the case in islands adjoining continents), in comparative miniature, the leading physical features of the adjacent mainland.

Government.—An hereditary sovereign in the male or female line, who is responsible only through the ministers of the crown. A privy council, of about 100 members, to advise the sovereign. A ministerial cabinet of twelve to fifteen members, dependent for tenure of office on a parliamentary majority. The cabinet consists of a first lord of the treasury (prime minister), lord chancellor, a finance minister, president of the council, privy seal, three secretaries of state, for (1) the home, (2) the foreign, (3) the colonial and war affairs, a first lord of the admiralty, president of the India board, president of the board of trade, postmaster-general, and other heads of departments.

House of Peers.—Princes of the blood royal, two archbishops, twenty dukes, twenty marquises, one hundred and sixteen earls, twenty-one viscounts, twenty-four bishops, and one hundred and ninety-nine barons, constitute at present the upper house. The members of the English peerage sit by hereditary right; sixteen Scotch peers elected for each parliament from the whole Scotch peerage by their compeers; twenty-eight Irish peers elected for life by the Irish peerage; four Irish prelates sit by rotation.

House of Commons.—Consists of 658 representatives, viz.: England and Wales, 498; Ireland, 105; Scotland, 53; all chosen by 1,000,000 electors for seven years, unless the parliament is sooner dissolved by the crown.

Army.—The army numbers 300,000 men, including the Anglo-Indian army, marines, and colonial corps. About 150,000 are Europeans, of whom 20,000 are cavalry and 20,000 artillery. Yeomanry cavalry in England and Wales, 340 troops—20,000 men. Cavalry and infantry police armed as soldiers in Ireland, 11,000 men; in Great Britain, disciplined and ready for arms, 20,000.

Navy.—Ships-of-the-line: from 120 to 100 guns, 22; from 100 to 70 guns,

ENGLAND.
The numbers attached to the counties designate their location, by corresponding numbers on the map.
1. Northumberland.
2. Cumberland.
3. Westmoreland.
4. Durham.
5. York.
6. Lancaster.
7. Cheshire.
8. Shropshire.
9. Stafford.
10. Derby.
11. Nottingham.
12. Lincoln.
13. Norfolk.
14. Suffolk.
15. Cambridge.
16. Huntingdon.
17. Rutland.
18. Northampton.
19. Leicester.
20. Warwick
21. Worcester.
22. Hereford.
23. Monmouth.
24. Gloucester.
25. Oxford.
26. Buckingham.
27. Bedford.
28. Hertford.
29. Middlesex.
30. Essex.
31. Kent.
32. Surrey.
33. Sussex.
34. Berks.
35. Hampshire, or Southampton.
36. Wilts.
37. Dorset.
38. Somerset.
39. Devon.
40. Cornwall.
WALES.
1. Flint.
2. Denbigh.
3. Merioneth.
4. Carnarvon.
5. Montgomery
6. Radnor.
7. Cardigan.
8. Pembroke.
9. Carmarthen.
10. Brecknock.
11. Glamorgan.
SCOTLAND.
1. Caithness.
2. Sutherland.
3. Ross.
4. Cromarty.
5. Nairn.
6. Elgin.
7. Banff.
8. Aberdeen.
9. Kincardine.
10. Forfar.
11. Inverness.
12. Argyle.
13. Perth.
14. Fife.
15 Kinross.
16. Clackmannan.
17. Stirling.
18. Dumbarton.
19. Renfrew.
20. Lanark.
21. Linlithgow.
22. Edinburgh.
23. Haddington.
24. Berwick.
25. Roxburgh.
26. Selkirk.
27. Peebles.
28. Dumfries.
29. Ayr.
30. Kirkcudbright.
31. Wigtown.
IRELAND.
1. Antrim.
2. Londonderry.
3. Donegal.
4. Tyrone.
5. Fermanagh.
6. Leitrim.
7. Monaghan.
8. Armagh.
9. Down.
10. Louth.
11. Cavan.
12. Longford.
13. Sligo.
14. Mayo.
15. Galway.
16. Roscommon.
17. Westmeath
18. King's.
19. Meath.
20. Dublin.
21. Wicklow.
22. Kildare.
23. Carlow.
24. Wexford.
25. Kilkenny.
26. Queen's.
27. Tipperary.
28. Waterford.
29. Clare.
30. Kerry.
31. Cork.
32. Limerick.
ATLANTIC OCEAN
NORTH SEA
ENGLISH CHANNEL
FRANCE
IRISH SEA
BRITISH ISLES
Scale of Miles
20 40 60 80 100
Shetland Islands
Mainland
Yell
Fair I.
Sumburgh Head
Lerwick
Fetlar I.
N. Ronaldsha I.
Sanday I.
Orkney Islands
Pomona
Hoy I.
S. Ronaldsha I.
Pentland Firth
Dunnet Head
Cape Wrath
Dornoch
Dornoch Frith
Murray Frith
Kinnaird Hd.
Elgin
Peterhead
Inverness
Aberdeen
Stonehaven
Montrose
Dundee
Perth
Frith of Tay
Berwick
Tweed R.
Frith of Forth
Glasgow
Greenock
Ailsa Craig
Islay I.
Mull
Coll I.
Tiree I.
Iona I.
Staffa
Oban
Mull of Cantire
Main Head
North Channel
Rathlin I.
Londonderry
Lough Foyle
Donegal Bay
Donegal
Belfast
Sligo
Lough Erne
Enniskillen
Cavan
Dundalk
Achil I.
Clew B.
Castlebar
Ballina
Roscommon
Galway
Shannon R.
Dublin
Wicklow
Carlow
Kildare
Wexford
Kilkenny
Waterford
Limerick
Tralee
Mallow
Cork
Youghal
Bantry
C. Clear
St. George's Channel
Irish Sea
Isle of Man
Douglas
Solway Frith
Wigton
Dumfries
Carlisle
Newcastle
Tyne R.
Durham
Tees R.
Appleby
Scarborough
Lancaster
Harrowgate
York
Flamborough Hd.
Preston
Leeds
Hull
Manchester
Sheffield
Humber R.
Liverpool
Lincoln
Anglesea
Holy Head
Chester
Derby
Boston
The Wash
Nottingham
Yarmouth
Norwich
Cambridge
Ipswich
Colchester
Birmingham
Coventry
Worcester
Warwick
Northampton
Oxford
Reading
London
Greenwich
R. Thames
R. Medway
R. Margate
Canterbury
Portsmouth
Brighton
Isle of Wight
Southampton
Winchester
Salisbury
Bristol
Bristol Chan.
Severn
Wells
Taunton
Exeter
Plymouth
Falmouth
Truro
Lands End
Scilly Is.
Cardigan
Carmarthen
Pembroke
Swansea
Cardiff
Aberthyr Tydvil
Brecknock
Radnor
Montgomery
Shrewsbury
Stafford
Worcester
Gloucester
Hereford
Monmouth
Bath
Wilts
Dorset
Devon
Somerset
Cornwall
Berks
Surrey
Sussex
Kent
Essex
Suffolk
Norfolk
Cambridge
Huntingdon
Rutland
Northampton
Leicester
Warwick
Oxford
Buckingham
Bedford
Hertford
Middlesex
Boulogne
Calais
Havre

55; from 70 to 50 guns, 30; from 50 to 36 guns, 38; from 36 to 20 guns, 30; and from 20 guns downward, 120. Steam-vessels of all classes under the pennant, 140.

Finances.—Annual income of the people of the United Kingdom, £500,000,000. Estimated value of land, £1,000,000,000; of houses and buildings, £500,000,000. £1,000,000,000 are invested in the public funds, in banks, corporations, and various companies and associations.

Circulating Medium.—Bank-notes, gold, silver, and copper coins. About £50,000,000 of metallic circulation; of bank-notes, in England and Wales, £25,000,000; Ireland, £5,500,000; Scotland, £3,600,000. Deposites in private and public banks, £50,000,000; deposites in savings' banks, £30,000,000.

National Debt.—At the revolution, in 1689, the national debt of Great Britain was £664,263; in 1702, Queen Anne's accession, £16,394,702; in 1714, George the First's accession, £54,145,363; in 1727, George the Second's accession, £52,092,238; in 1775, the commencement of the American revolution, £128,583,635; in 1793, the commencement of the French war, £239,350,148. At the termination of that war, in 1817, when the English and Irish exchequers were consolidated, £842,282,477. In 1838, it was £792,306,442.

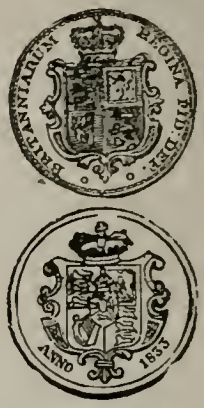
Foreign Possessions.—*In Asia*—Bengal, Madras, Bombay, Scinde, the northwest provinces of Hindostan, and Ultra-Gangetic territories; Ceylon, Penang, Malacca, Singapore, Labuan, and Hong-Kong. *In Australia*—New South Wales, Port Phillip, Southwestern and Northern Australia, Van Dieman's Land, and New Zealand. *In Africa*—Cape of Good Hope, Natal, Mauritius, Seychelles, Aden, St. Helena, Ascension, Sierra Leone, Gambia, Cape Coast Castle, and other forts. *In North America*—The Canadas, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, Prince Edward's island, Newfoundland, Labrador, the Hudson's Bay territories, and Vancouver's island. *In South America*—Demerara, Essequibo, Berbice, Honduras, and Falkland islands. *In the West Indies*—Jamaica, Trinidad, Tobago, Grenada, St. Vincent's, Barbadoes, Antigua, Dominica, St. Lucia, St. Kitt's, Nevis, Anguilla, Tortola, Virgin islands, Bahamas, and Bermudas. *In Europe*—Gibraltar, Malta, Gozo, the Ionian islands, and Heligoland; the Channel islands of Jersey, Guernsey, &c., are held as fiefs of the crown, since the reign of William I., and have their own legislatures. The Isle of Man has its own representative legislature. The area of the British foreign possessions (exclusive of the vast Hudson's Bay territories in North America, which extend from the Atlantic to the Pacific) is upward of 2,000,000 square miles, which contain about 120,000,000 subjects of the British crown, to which may be added tributary and dependent states whose inhabitants number 50,000,000.

History.—These islands are supposed to have been colonized by Celtic tribes from the adjacent continent, B. C. 1000. The Goths, under the name of Belgæ, passed into England, subdued the Celts, or drove them into fastnesses, and established several petty kingdoms, in which state the country was found by Julius Cæsar, B. C. 55. Agricola, the general of Domitian, subjugated the semi-savage inhabitants in Britain, but did not penetrate into Ireland. The Romans held possession of England for 475 years, and on the decay of their imperial power withdrew to the continent, leaving the Britons to be harassed by incursions from the Picts and Scots (or Irish), who soon passed the wall built by Severus for the protection of the British, from the Tyne to Solway Frith. The Britons then sought the aid of the Saxons, who occupied the country, made the Britons their serfs, and drove many into Wales, Cornwall, and Ireland. The Saxons were subdued by the Normans in 1066, since which period, excepting the interregnum of the government of Cromwell, there has been a successive hereditary sovereignty. In 1282, the principality of Wales was added to the crown of England; in 1707, the kingdom and legislature of Scot-

land was united with England under the title of Great Britain; and in 1800, the separate legislature of Ireland was incorporated with that of Great Britain, and the title of the United Kingdom was adopted. Step by step the people of England for a thousand years have practically worked out their freedom, and now possess more real political and religious liberty than any other nation in the Old World.

GOLD COINS OF GREAT BRITAIN.

Five Sovereigns, $24.25.



Half-Sovereigns, $2.41.

Double-Sovereign, $9.66.

Sovereign, $4.83.

Sovereign, $4.83.

Sovereign, $4.83.

Sovereign, $4.83.

Sovereign, $4.85.

Sovereign, $4.85.

One Guinea, $5.

Half-Guinea, $2.50.

Half-Guinea, $2.50.

One Third Guinea, $1.67.

SILVER COINS OF GREAT BRITAIN.

Sixpence, 11 cents.

Sixpence, 11 cts.

Fourpence, 7 cts.

4d. 7 cts.

3d. 5 cts.

One Shilling, 23 cts.

One Shilling, 23 cts.

One Shilling, 23 cts.

Sixpence, 11 cts.

One & sixpence, 24 cts.

One Shilling, 23 cts.

One Shilling, 23 cts.

One Shilling, 20 cts.

Half Crown, 56 cents.

George IV. Half Crown, 56 cents.

Half Crown, 56 cents.

Half Crown, 56 cents.

Half Crown, 57 cents.

Half Crown, 56 cents.

Crown, $1,15.

Bank of England 5s. Token, $1.

Charles II. Crown, $1,10.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

Victoria Crown, $1.15.

Victoria Crown (reverse side)

This portion of the United Kingdom is situated between the parallels of 50° and 55° 45′ north, and the meridians of 1° 50′ east and 5° 40′ west, and bounded on the east by the North sea, on the south by the English channel, which divides it from France, west by the Irish sea, which separates it from Ireland, and on the north by Scotland. The form is triangular; the distance, in a straight line from east to west, at the base of the triangle, from Dover to the Land's End, is about 340 miles; and from south to north, between the Isle of Wight and Berwick-on-Tweed, 370 miles. Superficial area, 57,821 square miles, of which England contains 50,396 square miles, and Wales 7,425.

Physical Aspect.—The varied features of England and Wales, though on a limited scale, possess natural as well as cultivated beauty. In the east are broad plains clothed with the richest verdure; in the south, gentle undulations with waving woods, fertile cornfields and flowing streams; in the west, rising hills and sloping vales, affording pasturage to innumerable herds of sheep and cattle, and green as the eye of man could wish to rest on; in the north, mountain and dell, lake and river, craggy ravines, falling torrents, bleak moors, and romantic scenery; but north, south, east, and west, almost everywhere, cultivated like a garden, and studded with princely castles, noble mansions, comfortable houses, neat cottages, and pleasant homes; presenting a *coup d'œil* such as no experienced traveller can contemplate without admiration and delight. The seacoasts of England present every variety of form, and are much modified by the character of the adjacent country. In some places, as in Cornwall, Kent, part of Norfolk, and Wales, they are high and steep; while in other places they are low, sandy, and marshy; but exhibit, on the whole, appearances so various as scarcely to admit of generalization. Though partaking more of a level than the rugged character, they still differ essentially from their opposite coasts of Flanders, Holland, &c., which present one continued flat for more than 300 miles. The only part of England, indeed, that bears any resemblance to these are the coasts of Lincolnshire and the coasts of the Wash, in the adjoining counties of Cambridge and Norfolk.

Mountains.—A western range from Cornwall to Cumberland; a lesser ridge from Dorset to Kent; and an irregular series of heights from Hampshire to Scarborough, in Yorkshire. The Cheviots in the northern part of Northumberland, are fine green hills of every variety of form, and cover an area of 90,000 acres. The Cumberland hills, which have been termed the British Apennines, pass through Westmoreland and Yorkshire to Derbyshire, dividing the northeast from the northwest coasts; have a height of 1,000 to 3,000 feet above the sea; are rich in mineral wealth, and, in conjunction with several lakes formed in their valleys, present charming scenery. The Welsh mountains consist rather of elevated peaks rising out of table-lands than of continuous ridges.

Snowdon, Plinlimmon, and the triple-head of Cadair Idris, are the most conspicuous. There are in England and Wales 28 mountains, whose height varies from 2,000 to 3,000 feet, and seven whose height exceeds 3,000 feet.

Rivers Lakes, &c.—The Thames, Severn, Mersey, Humber, Medway, Trent, Ouse, Tyne, Tees, Wear, Dee, Avon, Eden, and Derwent, are the principal streams; there are several others of lesser note, but of great beauty. The lakes of England are noted more for their picturesque beauty than their size. The most noted are, Windermere (the largest, occupying an area of twelve square miles), Ulles-water, Hawes-water, Thilemere, Coniston-water, Rydal and Grossmere waters, Derwent-water, and several others. Bala lake is the largest in Wales, occupying an area of about four square miles. The coast-line, especially along the west portion of the island, is much indented; and on no similar extent of country are so many fine harbors and ports to be found. On the west, Solway Firth, Morecombe bay, Liverpool, Chester, Bangor, the Menai straits, Holyhead, Caernarvon, Milford Haven, Caermarthen, Swansea, Bristol, the Severn, Bridgewater, Barnstaple, and St. Ives; on the south, Falmouth, Plymouth, Dartmouth, Teignmouth, Weymouth, Cowes, Southampton, Portsmouth, Dover, and Deal roads; on the east, Ramsgate, Sheerness, the Thames, Maldon, Harwich, Yarmouth, Boston, the Humber, Bridlington, the Tees, the Tyne, and Berwick-on-Tweed.

Islands.—The Isle of Man, thirty miles in length by twelve in breadth, is nearly equidistant from each of the three kingdoms. It comprises a considerable extent of level territory; but rises in the interior into high mountains, among which Snowfell, nearly 2,000 feet high, stands conspicuous. Man ranked long as an independent sovereignty, held by the earls of Derby, and is celebrated for the gallant defence made by the countess of that name for Charles I. It descended afterward to the duke of Athol, from whom the sovereignty was purchased, in 1765, by the British government, with a view to the prevention of smuggling, and to the establishment of a free trade. The population is about 55,000. Castleton, the capital, is the neatest town in the island; and in its centre, Castle Ruthven, the ancient palace of the kings of Man, rears its gloomy and majestic brow. Douglas, however, as being the spot in which the whole trade circulates, is now of superior importance, and has attracted a great number of English settlers. The Scilly Isles, situated at some distance from the western extremity of Cornwall, are tenanted by 2,600 poor inhabitants, who raise a little grain, but depend chiefly upon fishing, pilotage, and the making of kelp. Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, Serk, Herm, and Jedthou, form a group of large and small islands, situated near the coast of France, in the gulf or bay which sweeps from Cape de la Hogue, in Normandy, to Cape Frehella, in Brittany. They were early noted in history; Augustus is said to have sent a governor to Guernsey seventeen years before the birth of our Savior, when the island was dedicated to Saturn, and celebrated for its sanctity. In 912, they were considered to belong to the dukes of Normandy; William the Conqueror, on his acquisition of the sovereignty of England, in the eleventh century, attached the Norman Isles as a fief to his crown, and they have ever since, with unswerving loyalty, remained integral parts of the dominion of this realm. Jersey, the finest of the group, is so abundant in orchards, that cider forms the chief object of exportation. St. Helier, the capital of Jersey, is a handsome town. The population of the whole group, in 1851, was 85,000.

Climate.—The climate of England is among the finest in the world. The atmosphere is varied, and more or less dry according to its proximity to the sea, the elevation of the land, and the nature of the substrata: viz., whether chalk, gravel, or clay. The mean heat is from 50° to 53° Fahrenheit; the range from 22° to 82°. In 1813–'14, the thermometer sunk to 5° of zero, and in 1808, rose to 90°. The quantity of rain differs according to the prevailing

winds and surrounding country. The west and southwest winds are the most prevalent and violent in the southern districts, the north and northeast winds in the proximity of the Atlantic. The south wind is the least frequent.

CHIEF CITIES AND TOWNS.—London,* Manchester, Leeds, Birmingham,

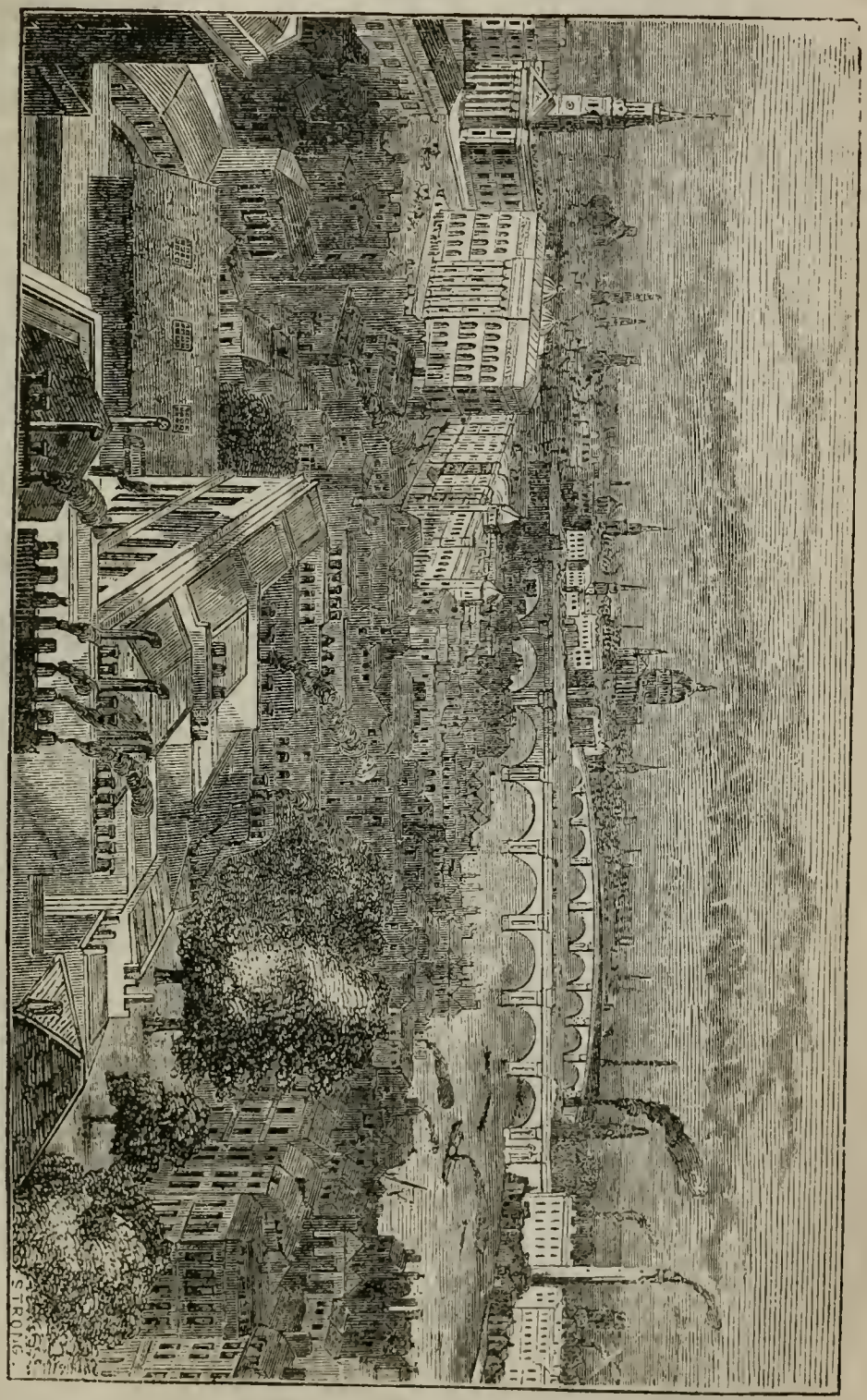
* LONDON, the British metropolis, is a world within itself. It is the principal residence of the sovereign, at which affairs of state are transacted, and regulations maintained with foreign courts. It is the centre of all important operations, whether of commerce or finance, and of correspondence with every quarter of the globe. London lies on both sides of the river Thames, 60 miles from its mouth. It is seven miles long, five miles wide, and contains an area of about thirty square miles. It consists, in fact, of eight distinct cities and boroughs, with extensive suburban villages and hamlets. The cities are, London proper and Westminster, and the boroughs Marylebone, Finsbury, Tower Hamlets, Southwark, Lambeth, and Greenwich; the first five being in Middlesex, the two next in Surrey, and the last in Kent county. The whole contained, in 1851, an aggregate population of 2,353,826, and has about 10,000 streets, lanes, terraces, &c., 80 squares, 24 market-places, and 329,428 houses. The buildings are generally of brick. The streets in some parts are wide, and few are so narrow as not to admit two carriages abreast. At the west end they are mostly straight, and sufficiently broad for five or six carriages. Here are the residences of the nobility and the rich. Regent street, in this quarter, is probably the most magnificent street in the world. In the city, or the central and oldest part, the streets are narrow and crooked, but here the great business of London is transacted. The east end is occupied by shops, victualling-houses, and people connected with commerce. Here are the immense timber-yards, docks, and massive warehouses which surround them, six stories high, with spacious vaults below. The London docks cover 100 acres; the West India, 300. The St. Catharine's is capable of holding 160 ships; the Commercial, East India, and others, are also spacious. They are built of massive granite masonry, and are only surpassed by those of Liverpool. London is well lighted with gas, and is supplied with water from the Thames. The police and fire companies have long been distinguished for their effective and complete arrangements. Railways unite London with all the important points in the kingdom; and it is brought into immediate communication with the continent by a line of electric telegraph, which crosses the English channel from Dover to Calais.

The principal parks of London are, St. James's park, Hyde park, Regent's park, and the Green park, in the west end, and Victoria park, in the eastern suburbs. Regent's park is surrounded by magnificent buildings, and contains the gardens of the Zoological Society, whose collection of animals is a most interesting and attractive objects of public curiosity. Hyde park is the largest, and is continuous with Kensington gardens, a large enclosure connected with the royal palace. It contains a colossal figure of Achilles, erected in honor of Wellington and Waterloo. The Serpentine river, so often mentioned as a resort of the youth of London for skating in winter, is an irregular-shaped pond, partly in Kensington gardens and partly in Hyde park. These parks are highly adorned with ornamental woods. The importance of these public grounds, as places of recreation and pleasure, is exceeded only by the healthiness which they impart to the largest city of Europe. The principal squares of London are, Trafalgar, with a beautiful column to Nelson, Grosvenor, Portman, Berkley, St. James's, Hanover, Manchester, Cavendish, Bedford, Russell, Tavestock, Bloomsbury, Montague, Leicester, Bryanston, and Finsbury squares, and Lincoln's Inn fields. Grosvenor square is the most beautiful, comprising an area of six acres, and surrounded by some of the most splendid buildings in London. There are several statues of British heroes and statesmen in these squares.

Among the churches of London St. Paul's cathedral is the most magnificent. The cornerstone was laid by Sir Christopher Wren, the architect, in 1675, and it was not finished till 1723. The church is in the Roman style of architecture, built in the form of a cross, with a large dome in the centre. It is 500 feet in length, 180 in breadth, and the height, from the vaults to the top of the cross which surmounts the dome is 404 feet. One of the noblest existing monuments of Gothic architecture is Westminster Abbey, some distance higher up the river. It has a vast, airy, and lofty appearance, which inspires feelings of awe and veneration. The chapel of Henry VII., at the east end of the church, is unrivalled for gorgeous magnificence. It contains the remains of the sovereigns, and monuments to the memory of the greatest names in English history. The Temple church in the inner temple is one of the most beautiful in England. Though the exterior has nothing specially attractive, the exterior is gorgeous with tesselated pavements, pillars of black marble, ceilings gilt, painted in fresco, with sepulchral monuments, &c. The city of Westminster and northeastern suburb of London contain many splendid modern churches, almost all in the classic style. London has few public edifices, compared with its great size and wealth. Westminster Hall was once a palace; it now forms the entrance hall to the new houses of parliament. The latter is said to be the most magnificent building in Europe. St. James's palace is an ill-looking brick building, but contains spacious and splendid apartments. The Tower is a vast enclosure upon the river. It contains several streets, and is surrounded by a wall. It is a baronial arsenal and a fortress; it was formerly used as a prison for persons accused of high treason, and also as a palace. The regalia belonging to the crown is deposited here, and immense stores of arms. The ditch and moat which once surrounded it no longer exist, having been converted into a garden. The Monument at the foot of London bridge, is a fluted Doric column, in a bad situation: it is 202 feet high, and commemorates the great fire of London. The bank of England, in the heart of the city, is a vast and plendid pile, covering eight acres. Somerset house, in the Strand, is one of the largest and most splendid edifices in the metropolis. The British museum is a place of great attraction in London. It contains immense collections of ancient antiquities, arranged in geographical order; cabinets of natural history in every department; the largest library in England, coins, &c. Among the other public buildings, which can be merely enumerated here, are, Guildhall, the Sessions-house, the Horse-guards, the Treasury, the Admiralty, the Royal exchange, the postoffice, the Excise-office, the East India house, the Mansion-house for the lord-mayor, the Stock-exchange, the Customhouse, the Corn-exchange, college of surgeons, &c. There are several picture-galleries, the principal of which are, the National, Vernon, and the Dulwich College. There are a large number of hospitals of various character, the chief of which are, Guy's, St. Thomas's, Bartholomew, London, the University, and the Queen's; these are richly endowed, and dispense their aid to great numbers, and are valuable schools for the medical students.

There are several bridges over the Thames: of these, Waterloo, London, and Blackfriars, are built of stone, and Southwark and Vauxhall bridges, of iron. Hungerford suspension bridge is much admired for its elegance. A more remarkable object is the Tunnel, a passage under the river at a point where a bridge would be detrimental to the navigation. This work was performed by sinking perpendicular shafts near the river, and working horizontally under the bottom of the Thames. This tunnel, however, will never be of much practical utility; the difficulty of the descent will always be a considerable obstacle to its extensive use. It was begun by a private company, but was carried on and completed by grants of public money.

The suburbs of London are, Woolwich, Greenwich (celebrated for its park, the most picturesque near London, and its naval hospital, for disabled and decayed seamen, and marines of the naval service), Deptford, Dulwich, Chelsea (noted for its hospital for superannuated soldiers), Richmond, Hampton Court, and Windsor. The limits of this note will not permit an enumeration of the events by which this great capital has been distinguished; but we must not omit a mention of the plague in 1665, which cut off 70,000 people; and of the conflagration, which occurred in 1666, by which the cathedral, and many other churches, with 13,200 houses, were destroyed.



VIEW OF LONDON, FROM THE YORK COLUMN.

Sheffield, Coventry, Derby, Carlisle, Liverpool,* Bristol, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, Hull, Southampton, Oxford, Cambridge, Portsmouth, Plymouth, Bath, Brighton, Canterbury, York, Winchester, Wolverhampton, Stoke-upon-Trent, Tynemouth, Bradford, Wakefield, Preston, Blackburn, Rochdale, Oldham, Ashton-under-Lyne, Bolton, Wigan, Stockport, Nottingham, Leicester, Worcester, Cheltenham, Norwich, Ipswich, Yarmouth, Exeter, and Chester. The principal towns in Wales are, Merthyr Tydvil (the centre of coal and iron mines), Swansea, Cardiff, and Carmarthen.

Political Divisions.—England and Wales are divided into fifty-two counties, the names of which, with their population in 1851, are as follows:—

England.		England.		England.		Wales.	
Bedford	129,789	Hertford	173,963	Shropshire	245,019	Anglesey	43,248
Berks	199,154	Huntingdon	60,320	Somerset	456,237	Brecknock	59,162
Buckingham	143,670	Kent	616,207	Southampton	402,033	Cardigan	97,667
Cambridge	191,856	Lancashire	2,063,913	Stafford	630,506	Carmarthen	94,663
Cheshire	423,438	Leicester	234,938	Suffolk	335,991	Carnarvon	94,668
Cornwall	356,662	Lincoln	400,266	Surrey	684,805	Denbigh	96,820
Cumberland	195,487	Middlesex	1,895,710	Sussex	339,428	Flint	41,053
Derby	260,707	Monmouth	92,095	Warwick	479,979	Glamorgan	240,132
Devon	572,207	Norfolk	433,803	Westmoreland	58,380	Merioneth	51,242
Dorset	177,597	Northampton	213,784	Wilts	241,003	Montgomery	77,129
Durham	411,532	Northumberland	303,535	Worcester	258,762	Pembroke	84,456
Essex	343,916	Nottingham	294,438	Yorkshire	1,788,767	Radnor	31,416
Gloucester	419,475	Oxford	170,286				
Hereford	99,112	Rutland	24,272	Total	16,899,268	Total	1,011,656

The aggregate population of England and Wales, in 1831, was 13,894,574; in 1841, 15,906,741; in 1851, 17,910,924.

Productive Resources.—Among the agricultural products of England are, wheat, barley, oats, rye, potatoes, peas, beans, clover, &c. The principal fruits are, apples, pears, cherries, plums, &c. Of domestic animals are, horses, sheep, cattle, hogs, &c. The hare, partridge, and pheasant, also abound. The rivers furnish trout, perch, &c., and the adjacent seas abound in herring, mack-

* Next to London, Liverpool is the greatest emporium of the British empire. It is located on the river Mersey, in latitude 33° 22′ north, and longitude 2° 57′ north-northwest, 196 miles from London. Liverpool stands partly on flat ground, along the edge of the river, and partly and principally on a gently rising declivity. Besides quintupling its population during the last half century, it has been more improved, during that period, than any other town in England, not excepting Manchester. Before that time, narrow, inconvenient, and ill-paved streets, lined with dull, heavy-looking houses, were its characteristic features; but so great is the alteration effected, chiefly through the exertions of the corporation and the public spirit of the citizens, that at present no town or city in the three kingdoms, except their capitals, has wider or handsomer streets, more sumptuous public buildings, or better-constructed and more substantial private dwellings. The corporation is alleged to have expended on improvements, between 1786 and the present time, nearly $10,000,000. The present limits of the city comprise about two thirds of the parliamentary borough; its length, from north to south (measured from Brunswick dock to the gas-works in Vauxhall road), is about two and a half miles, its breadth from the river to the church at Edgehill, one and three fourths miles, and its area somewhat exceeds 2,500 acres. The town-hall and Exchange form an impressive assemblage of objects, with a bronze group in the intermediate court, commemmorative of the death of Nelson. The customhouse is a conspicuous edifice, but in a heavy style of architecture. The other public buildings—the Corn Exchange, Lyceum, Athenæum, Wellington rooms, Infirmary, &c., are fine structures. There are upward of thirty churches belonging to the established church, many of them of much architectural beauty; a greater number belonging to various denominations of dissenters. The charitable institutions are numerous, and well-conducted. About 3,000 patients are admitted annually into the infirmary. The Blue-Coat hospital maintains and educates 200 boys and girls. The school for the blind is on a most extensive scale. Several handsome and spacious theatres, and a circus, are open during a great part of the year. At the Royal Liverpool institution public lectures are given; and attached to it is a philosophical apparatus, and a museum of natural curiosities. A botanic garden was established in 1801, at an expense of $50,000. There is also a mechanics' institution, of unusual extent and elegance, having been erected at an expense of $55,000. It includes schools for the young, as well as for the adolescent; and in the amount of its funds, and variety of the branches of knowledge taught, the establishment may be described as a kind of university for the middle and working-classes of Liverpool.

The estuary of the Mersey opens to this port a ready access to the ocean, and ships of any burden may come up fully laden to the town. The rapid rise of the port of Liverpool to its present consequence, is owing in part to the facilities that have been given to navigation and commerce, by the construction of docks, forming a magnificent series of deep-water harbors, extending along the whole front of the town. These docks cover an area of over 100 acres, and the quay space is over eight miles in length. An extensive trade is prosecuted by the merchants of Liverpool with the United States, and with the ports of the Mediterranean, the East Indies, and other parts of the world. In fact, four fifths of the trade between the United Kingdom and the United States centres at Liverpool. Indeed, the ships and products of Liverpool are to be found in every part of the world, accessible to merchantmen. About 16,000 vessels, of an aggregate tonnage of 2,000,000, arrive and depart from the port of Liverpool annually. The more prominent article of import is cotton, which is extensively used in the manufactories of Lancashire; and next in importance are the agricultural products of Ireland. The principal manufactures of Liverpool are, fine porcelain, earthenware, watches, stockings, glass, iron, soap, &c.

Up to the close of the seventeenth century, Liverpool was a very inconsiderable place, having only one church, and about 5,000 inhabitants. In 1716, the merchants began to engage in the trade with America and the West Indies, and the place has risen in importance, until it has become, in population and commerce, the second port in England. The following shows the progressive increase of population: in 1760, 26,000; in 1790, 56,000; in 1801, 77,653; in 1811, 94,376; in 1821, 118,972; in 1831, 165,175; in 1841, 223,003; in 1851, 255,055.

erel, sole, pilchard, &c. Mines form one of the most copious sources of the wealth of England. The useful metals and minerals, those which afford the instruments of manufacture, and are subservient to the daily purposes of life, are now drawn from the earth more copiously there than in any other country. Her most valuable metals are iron, copper, and tin ; her principal minerals are coal and salt.

Manufactures.—The manufactures of Great Britain are by far the most extensive and important that have ever belonged to any nation. The most important branches of manufacture are, cotton, woollen, silk, linen, and hardware. In the northern counties of England are great manufactures of broadcloth, and every other kind of woollen goods, principally in the West Riding of Yorkshire, at Leeds, Wakefield, Bradford, Halifax, and Hyddersfield. Sheffield has manufactures of cutlery and plated goods. Manchester, and its neighborhood, is the great seat of the cotton manufacture. In the midland counties, are the Cheshire manufactures of silk, cotton, linen, iron, and china ware ; the stocking manufactures of Nottingham ; the woollen of Leicestershire ; the pottery of Staffordshire ; the hardware of Birmingham ; the ribands of Coventry ; the carpeting of Kidderminster ; the broadcloth of Stroud. Flannels are the chief article of Welsh manufacture. In the southern counties are the cotton, paper, and blankets of Berkshire ; the flannels of Salisbury ; the cordage of Dorsetshire ; the woollens of every sort in Devonshire ; and every kind of goods, particularly the finer articles of upholstery, jewelry, and every material of luxury, are manufactured in and about London. The produce of English manufactures is estimated to amount to nearly a billion of dollars annually.

Railroads and Canals.—England is traversed by railroads and canals in every direction. The more important railways are the Liverpool and Manchester, 32 miles long ; the London and Birmingham, 112 miles long, connecting the metropolis with the centre of England ; the Grand Junction railway, continuing the London and Birmingham line to that of Liverpool and Manchester, and also to a railway proceeding northward to Lancaster and Carlisle, and thus forming a most important thoroughfare obliquely across the country ; the Midland Counties, North Midland, and Great North of England railways, connecting the great seats of trade in Northumberland, Durham, Yorkshire, and Derbyshire, with the London and Birmingham line ; the Newcastle and Carlisle railway, connecting these towns ; the Great Western railway, about 117 miles long, connecting London with Bristol, and with smaller tributary lines opening up the west of England ; the Southwestern railway, about seventy-seven miles long, connecting London with Southampton ; the London and Dover, which is connected with the French railway by steamers across the straits ; the Manchester and Leeds railway, connecting these populous towns. The length of canals in the United Kingdom is about 3,000 miles.

Commerce.—The commerce of England is more extensive than that of any other nation on the globe. All nations, to a greater or less extent, pay tribute to the perseverance and enterprise of this great commercial people. Her shipping engaged in foreign trade is over 3,000,000 tons. Her exports are equal to $250,000,000 annually, of which nearly half are cotton manufactures.

Religion.—The protestant episcopal church is established by law, and supervised by two archbishops and twenty-five bishops, with archdeacons, deans, and prebendaries. The inferior clergy consists of rectors, vicars, curates, and deacons. The archbishop of Canterbury is primate of *all* England, and in dignity ranks next to the royal family. The archbishop of York is primate of England. The sovereign is head of the church.

Education.—There are numerous private and public institutions of every description. It is estimated that 1,000,000 children in England and Wales are educated in private schools, as paying scholars ; and about 1,500,000 are edu-

cated by eleemosynary aid in the national, parochial, workhouse, and other charitable schools; 1,300,000 children receive instruction in Sunday schools.

History.—The ancient history of Britain has been already noticed in the description of the British Isles. The southern part of Britain, with the exception of Wales, was, in 515, divided into seven kingdoms, called the Heptarchy, and governed by Saxon princes; in 825, Egbert united these kingdoms in one under the name of England. Harold, the last Saxon king, was slain at the battle of Hastings in 1066, and his conqueror, William of Normandy, succeeded to his throne. Since then the following monarchs have reigned in England:—

	Accession.
NORMAN LINE.	
William I.	1066
William II.	1087
Henry I.	1100
HOUSE OF BLOIS.	
Stephen	1135
HOUSE OF PLANTAGENET.	
Henry II.	1154
Richard I.	1189
John	1199
Henry III.	1216
Edward I.	1272
Edward II.	1307
Edward III.	1327
Richard II.	1377
HOUSE OF LANCASTER.	
Henry IV.	1399
Henry V.	1413
Henry VI.	1422
HOUSE OF YORK.	
Edward IV.	1461
Edward V.	1483
Richard III.	1483
HOUSE OF TUDOR.	
Henry VII.	1485
Henry VIII.	1509
Edward VI.	1547
Mary	1553
Elizabeth	1558
HOUSE OF STUART.	
James I.	1603
Charles I.	1625
THE COMMONWEALTH.	
Cromwell (Protector)	1648
HOUSE OF STUART.	
Charles II.	1660
James II.	1685
HOUSE OF ORANGE.	
William III & Mary II	1688
HOUSE OF STUART.	
Anne	1702
HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK.	
George I.	1714
George II.	1727
George III.	1760
George IV.	1830
William IV.	1830
Victoria	1837

SCOTLAND.

Scotland comprises the northern portion of the United Kingdom; it is bounded on the north by the North sea and Pentland Frith, which insulate the Orkney Isles, on the east by the German ocean; on the west by the Atlantic ocean, on the southeast by England (from which it is separated by the Cheviot hills, the Solway Frith, and a series of rivers), and on the southwest by the Irish sea and North channel, which divides it from Ireland. The most southern point of the mainland (the Mull of Galloway) is in in 54° 38′ north latitude, and 4° 52′ west longitude; and the opposite extremity, Cape Wrath, is in 58° 37′ north latitude, and 5° 1′ west longitude. Its greatest length is about 280 miles, and its greatest breadth 160. The deep indentations in the coast cause its dimensions to vary greatly, and between Loch Broom and Dornoch Frith its breadth is only 24 miles. Its superficial area is 29,871 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—Exceedingly varied; two thirds of the surface is mountainous, and not above one eighth is cultivated, the remainder being devoted to pasturage. Scotland is naturally divided into the two well-known divisions of highlands and lowlands; but it is also geographically marked into three distinct parts, of which the northern—divided from the central by the noble Caledonian canal, which unites Loch Linnhe to Moray Frith, is grand and imposing, but exceeding bleak and sterile; its coasts on the west are dangerous, from the numerous rocky promontories, but the Friths of Cromarty and Dornoch form good havens on the west and east. At Peterhead, on the east coast, a harbor has been constructed, which has greatly mitigated the perils incurred by mariners on this coast. The central portion is likewise extremely mountainous; the Grampians extend across it from the Atlantic to the German ocean; the Monagh Lea, and other ranges; many beautiful valleys, lakes, and glens, render the scenery very picturesque. Much of the land has been brought under cultivation by the untiring industry of the people. The southern division is marked by the Clyde canal, which joins the friths of Clyde and Forth. Here mountain, rock, and torrent, wood, moor, and lonely heath, rivers and lakes embosomed in the loveliest valleys, or fertilizing rich corn or meadow-land, combine to form a region unsurpassed in picturesque beauty.

Mountains.—The principal mountain ridges in the southern district are the Lead hills, the Pentland, and the Lammermuir. The Cheviot hills are on the confines of England. The highest mountains are, Ben Nevis, Inverness-shire, 4,370 feet; Ben Macdhu, Aberdeenshire, 4,418; Cairntoul, Aberdeenshire, 4,220; Cairngorm, Inverness-shire, 4,060; Ben Lawers, Perthshire, 4,015; Ben More, Perthshire, 3,980; Cruachan Ben, Argyleshire, 3,960; Rona, Orkneys, 3,944; Benabourd, Aberdeenshire, 3,940; Benaven, Aberdeenshire, 3,920; Ben Gloe, Perthshire, 3,725; Ben Wyvis, Ross-shire, 3,720; Benuaish, Ross-shire, 3,720; Cairn-Our, Perthshire, 3,690.

Rivers and Bays.—The Tay, Tweed, Spey, Clyde, North Dee, Ness, Forth, Lochy, Nith, Findhorn, Dee, and Don, are the principal rivers of Scotland. They are fine streams, and generally abound in fish, especially in salmon and trout. The coast of Scotland is indented by inlets and arms of the sea. The friths of Forth, Tay, Murray, Dornoch, Pentland, and Solway, are the principal bays.

Lakes.—Loch Lomond, in Dumbartonshire, stands pre-eminent among the beautiful lakes for which Scotland is so justly famed. It is studded with wooded islands of considerable size, and abounding with fine trout. Loch Awe, in Argyleshire, abounds in salmon trout, and eel. The area, in square miles, of the lakes, is as follows: Loch Lomond, Dumbarton, and Stirling, 45; Loch Awe, Argyle, 30; Loch Ness, Inverness, 30: Loch Shin, Sutherland, 25; Loch Mair, Ross, 24; Loch Tay, Perth, 20; Loch Arkieg, Inverness, 18; Loch Shiel, Inverness, 16; Loch Lochy, Inverness, 15; Loch Laggan, Inverness, 12.

Islands.—There are few or no islands off the east coast of Scotland, but an immense number lie contiguous to and off the west coast. Some of these are of considerable extent, though few are of much value. The principal of these are, the Hebrides or Western islands, lying between 55° 35′ and 58° 51′ north latitude, and 5° and 7° 52′ west longitude. They consist of about 300, great and small, and comprise an aggregate superficial area of 2,750 square miles. The largest, Lewis, is 67 miles long. The next in size are, Skye, Mule, Islay, and Arron. A large proportion of them are rocky and barren; but about 90 of them are inhabited and cultivated. The most westerly is St. Kilda, with a rocky precipice, overhanging the sea. The hunting of birds and birds'-nests, by swinging at immense hazards from the perpendicular cliffs, is a favorite occupation of the inhabitants. In the island of Staffa is the celebrated Fingal's cave. To the north of Scotland are the Shetland and Orkney islands. The Shetland are about 100 in number, of which about 40 are inhabited. The principal of them are Mainland, Yell, Uist, Whelsey, Bressa, &c. The Orkneys are about 70 in number, 30 of which are inhabited.

Climate.—Scotland has a more rigorous climate than England; but owing to the proximity of most parts of the country to the sea, and the numerous friths and deep bays by which it is penetrated, it is less severe than might, from the latitude, be expected. The mean annual temperature of places near the level of the ocean, throughout the country, averages $46\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ Fahrenheit. Excess of humidity, and the occurrence of heavy rains in August, September, and October, and of cold, piercing east winds, especially along the east coast, in the months of April, May, and the first half of June, are the great drawbacks on the climate of Scotland. It is rare, indeed, that the crops suffer from heat or drought; but they frequently suffer from wet and from violent winds, especially in the west part of the country. The climate is, however, highly salubrious, and favorable alike to longevity, and to the development of the physical and mental powers.

Chief Cities and Towns.—Edinburgh, the capital of Scotland, is justly celebrated for its fine position and noble buildings. It is divided by a deep,

narrow basin, once the bed of a lake, into the Old and New Town. The former is a crowded assemblage of antique buildings, placed upon a rugged, steep hill, which is terminated on the west side by a precipitous rock, on which stands the castle. Here the streets are narrow, and some of the houses are ten, and even twelve stories in height on the street. The new town is regularly laid out, and built of freestone. It consists chiefly of the residences of the rich, who are drawn hither from all parts of the country. Glasgow is the great trading mart of Scotland, and, with the neighboring towns on the Clyde, the chief seat of manufactures. Dundee and Aberdeen are famed for flax manufactures; and Perth is the cleanest and neatest city of the north. Other noted towns are, Leith, Paisley, Greenock, Dumfries, Ayr, Inverness, Kilmarnock, Sterling, Falkirk, Dumferline, Wick, Cupu, Kircaldy, St. Ambrose, Montrose, Arbroath, Lanark, Forfar, and Elgin.

Productive Resources.—The agricultural products of Scotland are similar to those of England. Oats and potatoes rank first in importance, oatmeal and potatoes forming the food of the mass of the people. Wheat, barley, beans, peas, turnips, and flax, are also extensively produced. Lead, copper, iron, and coal, are the most abundant minerals, more especially the last two. There are stag and fallow-deer, both wild and domestic; small game, such as grouse, pheasants, hares, and rabbits, abound upon many of the preserves. Salmon and trout, and other fish, are plenty in the rivers. The fisheries are an important source of wealth.

Manufactures.—The value of the manufactures of Scotland is estimated at $100,000,000 a year. The manufactures consist of cotton, woollen, linen, floss-silk, iron, hats, paper, sail-cloth, pottery, and most of the articles made in England.

Railroads and Canals.—The Edinburgh and Glasgow, and the Glasgow and Ayr, are the principal railways in Scotland. Among the important canals we may mention, the Great or Clyde canal, which was commenced in 1768, to connect the Clyde with the Forth, and cost £200,000. The Caledonian canal joins the Atlantic and the Moray Frith, a distance of 59 miles. It cost more than a million sterling. The Union, Monkland, Crinan, and Ardrossan, are all useful canals.

Commerce.—Having little industry, and being thinly populated, Scotland had formerly a very limited foreign trade. The exports consisted of wool, skins, hides, and other raw materials, exchanged for corn, wines, spices, &c. During the reign of Charles II. the trade of the country, especially that with Holland and the countries round the Baltic, began to increase. It was not, however, till after the completion of the union, in 1707, when the trade to the American and West India colonies was, for the first time, open to the enterprise and activity of the Scotch, that the commercial energies of the nation began to be awakened. The establishment and rapid extension of manufactures, in 1763, has necessarily occasioned a corresponding increase of commerce, and the mercantile marine of Scotland is now very considerable indeed. At present, the principal articles of export consists of cotton and linen stuffs, cotton and linen yarn, wool, iron, hardware, silk goods, coal, spirits, beer, black cattle, herring, salmon, and other salted and fresh fish, stationery, &c. The great articles of import consist of tea, sugar, coffee, and other colonial products, raw cotton, flax, hemp, tobacco, raw silk, wine, dye-stuffs, &c. The great emporiums are, Glasgow (including Greenock and Port Glasgow), Leith, Aberdeen, Dundee, and Montrose.

Education.—An endowed school has been for a lengthened period established in every parish in Scotland. The landlords are bound to build the schoolhouse, and a house for the residence of the master, and to pay him a salary. An efficient system of education has, in consequence, been brought

within the reach of all classes, and has been productive of the greatest advantage. The higher branches of education are taught in the universities of Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, and St. Andrew's. Each of these universities has faculties of literature, philosophy, law, and medicine.

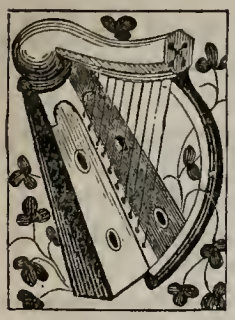
Population.—The population of Scotland, in 1700, was 1,048,000; in 1801, 1,649,000; in 1811, 1,805,688; in 1821, 2,093,456; in 1831, 2,365,807; in 1841, 2,620,184; in 1851, by counties, as follows:—

Southern Counties.		Haddington	36,396	Stirling	85,726	Inverness	96,328
Ayr	189,286	Kinross	8,913	Wigtown	43,253	Kincardine	34,743
Berwick	36,287	Kirkcudbright	43,310	Northern Counties.		Nairn	9,966
Bute	16,576	Lanark	532,114	Aberdeen	214,658	Orkney & Shetland	62,313
Clackmannan	22,985	Linlithgow	30,044	Argyle	88,567	Perth	139,216
Dumbarton	44,923	Peebles	10,582	Banff	53,935	Ross & Cromarty	82,625
Dumfries	78,057	Renfrew	159,064	Caithness	38,542	Sutherland	25,771
Edinburgh	258,824	Roxburgh	51,570	Elgin	38,671		
Fife	153,011	Selkirk	9,797	Forfar	174,731	Total	2,870,784

History.—Scotland was anciently possessed by two rival nations, the Scots or Irish, inhabiting the western, and the Picts the eastern portion. Kenneth II., king of the Scots, having, in 845, succeeded in vanquishing the Picts, united their country with his own, and formed the kingdom of Scotland. His successors were, Donald V., Constantine, Ethus, Gregory, Donald VI., Constantine II., Malcolm I., Indulphus, Duffus, Culenus, Kenneth III., Constantine IV., Grimus, Malcolm II., and Duncan I. The unfortunate monarch last-named was slain by Macbeth, who succeeded him in 1056, and retained the crown until Malcolm III. avenged the murder of his father by the death of the usurper, and ascended the throne, in 1056. David I. came to the throne in 1124, founding the abbey of Holyrood, and fixing his residence at Edinburgh. William the Lion came to the throne in 1165, and was succeeded by Alexander II., in 1214. In 1286, there were two claimants of the throne—Robert Bruce, and John Baliol. The latter obtained the crown through the influence of Edward I. of England, acknowledging himself a vassal of the English king. A war between them soon followed; Baliol was defeated, taken to London, and there executed. William Wallace took the command of the Scots, but Edward defeated them in the battle of Falkirk, 1298. In 1306, Robert Bruce, son of the rival of Baliol, claimed the Scottish throne, and in the battle of Bannockburn, 1314, totally defeated Edward and his powerful army. This victory secured the independence of Scotland, and confirmed Bruce in possession of the throne. The house of Stuart succeeded in 1371, the unfortunate history of which is invested with more than ordinary interest. The principles of the Reformers were early introduced into Scotland, and were eagerly adopted by both the nobles and the people. The protestant religion obtained the ascendency in 1560, shortly before the return of the beautiful, but ill-fated Mary from France. At this period the royal authority was at a very low ebb, the most violent contentions prevailed among the nobility, and it would have required a sovereign of no ordinary ability and energy of character to conduct the government under such difficult circumstances. Mary failed; her anti-protestant prejudices, and the violence of her passions, were ill-suited to such a condition of the country. Having been deposed in 1567, Mary was succeeded by her son, James VI., then a minor. The latter succeeded, on the demise of Elizabeth, in 1503, to the crown of England, by which event the two British crowns were united under one sovereign. The following table contains the names of the Scottish sovereigns, and the dates of their accession, from Malcolm III. until James VI., when the union of the two kingdoms was effected.

	Accession.		Accession.		Accession.		Accession.
Donald VII.	1093	Malcolm IV.	1153	David II.	1330	James III.	1460
Duncan II. (usurper)	1094	William	1165	Ed'd Baliol (usurper)	1332	James IV.	1489
Donald VII. (restored)	1095	Alexander II.	1214	Robert II. (Stuart)	1370	James V.	1514
Edgar	1098	Alexander III.	1249	Robert III.	1390	Mary	1543
Alexander I.	1107	John Baliol	1292	James I.	1423	James VI. of Scotland and I. of England	1567
David I.	1124	Robert Bruce	1306	James II.	1437		

IRELAND.



Ireland is bounded on the north, west, and south, by the Atlantic ocean, and on the east by St. George's channel and the Irish sea. It is in length, from northeast to southwest, 300 miles, and varies in breadth from 100 to 160 miles. It comprises an area of 32,433 square miles, and is situated between 51° 20′ to 55° 20′ north latitude, and 5° 20′ to 10° 15′ west longitude from Greenwich. America is the nearest land on the west, Galicia, in Spain, is the nearest on the south, Port Patrick, in Scotland, on the north, and Holyhead, in Wales, on the east.

Physical Aspect.—The face of the country is picturesquely varied. The east and southeast is generally low and rocky, the north high and rugged; the west, northwest, and southwest, lofty, and deeply indented by the Atlantic. In many places the scenery is very beautiful, especially in the county of Wicklow; but in other parts, such as the bog of Allen, which occupies 77,000 acres, the wilds of Connemara, and about Bantry and Skibbereen, the aspect is bleak and hopelessly barren: 467,577 acres are covered with lakes, and more than 6,000,000 acres consist of unimproved mountain and bog. In nearly 21,000,000 acres of surface, but 3,313,579 acres are cultivated with grain; 727,738 acres with potatoes; 58,312 with flax; and 1,138,406 acres are meadow-land. Thus, not a fourth part of the surface (4,000,000 acres) is employed in supplying food for 6,500,000 people. Peat or bog is composed of organic matter which, on decomposition, yields the pabulum of animal or vegetable life. The soil where the bog is removed, being saturated with ammonia, is exceedingly fertile.

Mountains.—The principal mountain ridges run from north to south; those of the maritime and western districts are the most elevated, and all are in more or less detached groups. The highest elevations are, Macgillicuddy's reeks, 3,410 feet; Slieve-Donard, county of Down, 3,150 feet; Mangerton, Lake of Killarney, county of Kerry, 2,693 feet; Croagh Patrick, county of Mayo, 2,606 feet; Nephin, county of Mayo, 2,650 feet; Comeragh, county of Waterford, 2,160 feet.

Rivers and Lakes.—The Shannon, Barrow, Blackwater, Bann, Boyne, Liffey, Lee, and Foyle, are the principal streams. The Shannon is unsurpassed, for magnitude and extent of inland navigation, by any river in the United Kingdom. The lakes, or loughs, are numerous. Lough Erne, in Fermanagh, consists of two lakes, one twenty miles and the other fifteen miles in length, with a medium breadth of ten miles. Lough Neagh, in Antrim, is fifteen miles long by seven broad. Lough Derry and Lough Corrib are of still greater extent. The Lakes of Killarney, in Kerry, are famed for their beauty.

Climate.—The climate of Ireland is more temperate and equable than that of other parts of Europe in the same latitude. The heat of summer is less oppressive, and the cold of winter less severe; and, when anything like immoderately hot or cold weather takes place, it lasts for a much shorter time. The great defect of the climate of Ireland is excess of humidity: not only is rain more frequent than in England, but the atmosphere, when there is no rain, is largely impregnated with moisture. In the dryest seasons, Ireland rarely suffers from drought, but the crops are often injured by too much wet. Thunder-storms are less frequent and destructive in Ireland than in Britain. The mean temperature of the north of Ireland is about 48°, of the middle 50° and of the south 52° Fahrenheit. Its range at Dublin has been found to be between 14° 50′ and 81° 50′ the mean being about 49°. Peaches, grapes, and most

other southern fruits, do not ripen without much care and attention; but the broad-leaved myrtle grows luxuriantly in the southern counties, and the arbutus is not native to any other country so remote from the equator.

Cities and Chief Towns.—Dublin (the capital), Cork, Belfast, Derry, Waterford, Limerick, Armagh, Newry, Wexford, Kilkenny, Carlow, Cavan, Enniskillen, Sligo, Galway, Clonmel, Monaghan, Dundalk, Drogheda, Ennis, and Athlone. Dublin is well and picturesquely situated; its bay is thought to rival in beauty even that of Naples. The combination of mountain and sea gives a striking effect and great variety to the surrounding scenery. Its public buildings, squares, streets, cathedrals, churches, monuments, and private dwellings, are, in some respects, not inferior to those of London. Population, 232,726. Cork, 160 miles southwest of Dublin, is famed for its extensive cove or harbor, and verdant hills. The city has a few fine buildings, and the country around the adjacent river Lee is rich, and comparatively well-timbered, although generally speaking, Ireland is very thinly-wooded. Population, 180,720. Belfast, 100 miles north of Dublin, is the Liverpool of Ireland, and has a population of nearly 75,308, remarkable for their industry, energy, and intelligence, which have been rewarded by much commercial and manufacturing prosperity. Derry, 150 miles north of Dublin, is an ancient city, famed for the celebrated siege which its brave inhabitants successfully resisted in the reign of James II., defending, at the risk of their lives, their religious liberty. Waterford on the east, and Limerick and Galway on the west coast, have both fine harbors, possess considerable trade, and are surrounded by some of the richest agricultural districts in Ireland. Limerick castle is noted for the siege it endured from the army under the command of King William III., in 1690–'91.

Productive Resources.—The principal agricultural products of Ireland are, potatoes,* oats, wheat, barley, and flax. The dairy is an important part of Irish husbandry. Coal is the most abundant mineral. Marble and slate are found in Kilkenny, in the south. Iron was formerly produced in many parts, but at present few or no mines are worked. Copper, silver, and gold, have also been found to a limited extent.

Manufactures.—Linen is the staple manufacture of Ireland; half a million of people being engaged in its production. The cotton, woollen, and silk manufactures employ about 20,000 persons. Belfast is the principal seat of the cotton manufacture. Distillation has been an extensive business in Ireland. In 1838, duties were paid on over 12,000,000 gallons; but through the exertions of Father Mathew that amount has been very considerably reduced.

Commerce.—The commerce of Ireland consists mainly in the exports of her agricultural products and manufactures to other parts of the British empire. About 70,000,000 yards of linen are annually exported. The aggregate imports and exports of 1848 amounted in value to $200,000,000.

Education.—There is but one university in Ireland. This is at Dublin, and is an institution of very high character. There is a Roman catholic college at Maynooth, and an academical college at Belfast. Schools are also established under the superintendence of a board of national education, for the education of children in the common and most useful branches of secular knowledge. There are about 5,000 national schools established, with half a million of pupils.

Population.—In 1672, the population of Ireland was 1,320,000. In the succeeding fifty years it had doubled; in the next half century it advanced more slowly, being, in 1777, but 2,690,000. The parliamentary censuses, the first of which was taken in 1811, exhibit the following results: in 1811, 5,937,856;

* In 1846–'48, the potato crops in Ireland almost entirely failed; and that being the great staple on which the Irish depend for subsistence, scenes of the most horrid description ensued. Thousands on thousands perished for the want of food, and thousands more were irrecoverably ruined in health and means of future competence. No less a sum than £8,000,000 sterling was voted by parliament for the relief of the starving, and vast supplies of provisions and clothing were sent from the United States.

in 1821, 6,801,827; in 1831, 7,734,365; in 1841, 8,176,124; in 1851, by counties, as follows:—

Province of Ulster.		Province of Leinster.		King's County	112,874	Clare	212,720
Antrim	358,503	Louth	107,921	Westmeath	107,510		
Down	317,778	Meath	139,706	Longford	83,198	Prov. of Connaught.	
Armagh	196,420	Dublin	402,356			Leitrim	111,808
Monaghan	143,410	Wicklow	99,287	Province of Munster.		Sligo	128,769
Cavan	174,303	Wexford	180,170	Tipperary	323,829	Mayo	274,716
Fermanagh	115,978	Kilkenny	160,217	Waterford	162,503	Galway	322,826
Tyrone	251,865	Carlow	68,157	Cork	637,637	Roscommon	173,798
Donegal	254,288	Kildare	96,627	Kerry	238,241		
Londonderry	191,744	Queen's County	109,747	Limerick	256,837	Total	6,515,794

Government.—The executive power is vested in a viceroy, appointed by the crown, called the lord-lieutenant, or, in his absence, in lord's justices, generally the primate, lord-chancellor, commander of the forces, and a privy council appointed by the crown.

Thirty-Penny Token, 44 cents.

11 cents.

History.—The traditionary annals of Ireland extend to remote antiquity; but without entering upon the difficult question of the degree of credence to be assigned to them, we have abundant evidence to convince us that historians are right in asserting that the island was, at a very early period, in a high state of civilization: this is attested by the "Round Towers" which have so sorely puzzled antiquarians, and by the ring-money, coins, gold, and the other metallic ornaments and manufactures, discovered at different times in various parts of the country. Ireland, exempt from both Roman and Saxon invasion, probably received the light of Christianity before Britain, direct from the eastern churches. The celebrated Brian Boiromhe, or Brian Boru, succeeded Malachy II. as supreme monarch of all Ireland, and perished in the eightieth year of his age, on Good Friday, 23d of April, 1014, in a sanguinary battle with the Danes, at Clontarf, near Dublin. The Danes, though they had succeeded in possessing themselves of the east coast of Ireland, offered but a feeble resistance to Henry II., king of England, who received a bull from Pope Alexander III., confirming the grant of Pope Adrian IV. of the "lordship of the kingdom of Ireland." Henry, on his landing at Waterford on the 19th of October, 1171, was received as the friend and ally of the Irish; the kings and princes of Cork, Limerick, Ossory, and Meath, and the archbishops, the bishops, and abbots of Ireland, came to Waterford and swore fealty to him and to his heirs for ever, which was also eventually done by Roderick O'Connor, king of Connaught, 1175, who deputed three eminent ecclesiastics to attend Henry at Windsor, and do homage for him as a "liegeman" to the king of England. From this period England claimed dominion over the country. The Irish have made frequent attempts to liberate themselves, but without effect. The English attempted to force their religion upon the country, but the Celtic Irish have only clung more steadily to the catholic faith. Rebellions have been frequent in modern times, but they have proved ineffectual. The Irish have continued to resist the English language and English customs, and have zealously cherished a spirit of national independence. In 1800, Ireland was united to the kingdom of Great Britain, its own parliament having ceased at that time. A great excitement was produced in the country, a few years since, by Daniel O'Connell, who sought a repeal of the union, and the partial independence of Ireland. He died on his way to Rome, 1847; and since that time the people have been kept in subjection.

FRANCE.

2 Francs, 34 cents.

The territory of this ancient kingdom lies between 42° 40′ and 51° 5′ north latitude, and 8° 25′ west and 4° 43′ east longitude; and is bounded on the northwest by the English channel, and on the northeast by Belgium, on the west by the Bay of Biscay, on the south by the Pyrenees, which separate it from Spain, and by the Mediterranean, and on the east by Sardinia, Switzerland, and Germany. It is nearly an hexagonal figure, and measures about 500 miles at its extreme angles from north to south and east to west. Its superficial area is 207,252 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The northern and central districts are generally level, or slightly undulating; the highest land is in the south and east—in Languedoc, Provence, Dauphiny, and Franche Compte, adjoining the Pyrenees and the Alps; and the most picturesque in Normandy. Picardy, Champagne, Lorraine, Burgundy, Orleans, Maine, Poictou, and the provinces bordering on the bay of Biscay, are deficient in landscape and scenery, and in several places south of the Garonne bare and cheerless. The coast of France, along the English channel, is generally irregular in its outline, and forms two great bays, which are separated by the peninsula of Cotentin or La Manche. The northeastern part of the coast is low and shelving, and lined in many places with sand-hills. About Cape Grisnez there are cliffs, and to the westward of the mouth of the Seine the coast is skirted with rocks. The coast of the western bay is rocky, broken by numerous inlets, and lined with many rocky islands. The western coast of Finisterre or Bretagne is lofty or precipitous, from which it becomes gradually lower, until at L'Orient, and further to the southeast, it terminates in low, clayey, and muddy flats, in which the sea forms various inlets, chiefly at the mouths of the rivers. The headlands, however, and the numerous islands off the shore, are still of the same hard rock, but slightly covered with soil, and in some parts rising into rugged precipices. To the south of the Loire the coast is less broken, and to the Gironde low, and lined with salt marshes. Hence, to the Pyrenees is one straight line of coast bordered by extensive heaths, and only at distant intervals with meadows and cultivated fields. The soil, however, is not wholly unproductive, and numbers of sheep find pasture in its healthy covering.

Mountains.—The Cevennes, west of the Rhone, 6,500 feet high; the Vosges, in Franché Comte and Alsace, 4,500 feet; the Jura, 6,000 feet, on the confines of Switzerland, and parts of the Alps and Pyrenees. These mountains divide the country into four great basins. The surface gradually rises toward the southeast. The Cevennes mountains are chiefly basaltic; the Vosges contain in some places green granite and various minerals; the Alps and Pyrenees are chiefly granite, quartz, feldspar, and mica; some are calcareous. Sea-shells are found on the highest summits.

Rivers and Lakes.—The rivers of France are estimated at 6,000, of which 300 are more or less navigable. The chief are, the Rhone, Loire, Garonne, and Seine. The Rhone has a course of 400 miles from its source in Mount Saint Gothard in Switzerland, to its mouth in the gulf of Lyons in the Mediterranean; the scenery along its banks is very picturesque. The Loire has a course of 500 miles from Mount Mezin in Ardeche, to its embouche near Nantes in the bay of Biscay. It is a noble river, navigable for three fourths of its course. The Garonne runs for 250 miles from its source in the Pyrenees to Bordeaux, and thence by the Gironde and an arm of the sea into the bay of

Biscay. It is navigable for large boats to Toulouse. The Seine flows for 250 miles from near Dijon in Burgundy, to Havre de Grace in the English channel. It is navigable to Paris for large-sized boats, and to Rouen for masted vessels. The Rhine, Moselle, and the Meuse, have a part of their course in France. The lakes are few, and shallow. The principal is the Etang de Barre in Provence, which covers 300 square miles.

Climate.—In the north similar to that of England, but drier; in the middle and south warmer, with a light and elastic atmosphere. The temperature of Paris, for a few months, is higher in summer, and lower in winter, than that of London. The variety of climate, and different elevations and aspects, marks the divisions in vegetation for the production of the vine, olive, mulberry, maize, and corn.

Political Divisions.—France, formerly divided into 32 provinces or governments, was, in 1790, divided into departments. The 86 departments are divided into 363 arrondissements or districts, which are again subdivided into 2,845 cantons, the cantons into 38,990 communes, or towns and villages, with municipalities. The names of the departments, with their respective capitals, are as follows:—

Departments.	Capitals.
Ain	Bourg
Aisne	Laon
Allier	Moulins
Alpes (Basses)	Digne
Alpes (Hautes)	Gap
Ardèche	Privas
Ardennes	Mezieres
Ariège	Foix
Aube	Troyes
Aude	Carcassonne
Aveyron	Rhodez
Bouches du Rhone	Marseille
Calvados	Caen
Cantal	Aurillac
Charente	Angouleme
Charente (Inf.)	Rochelle
Cher	Bourges
Corrèze	Tulle
Corsica	Ajaccio
Côte d'Or	Dijon
Côtes du Norde	St. Brieux
Creuse	Gueret
Dordogne	Perigueux
Doubs	Besançon
Drôme	Valence
Eure	Evreux
Eure et Loire	Chartres
Finisterre	Quimper
Gard	Nimes
Garonne (Haut)	Toulouse
Gers	Auch
Gironde	Bordeaux
Herault	Montpellier
Ille et Vilaine	Rennes
Indre	Chateauroux
Indre et Loire	Tours
Isère	Grenoble
Jura	Lons le Saulnier
Landes	Mont de Maraan
Loire et Cher	Blois
Loire	Montbrison
Loire (Haute)	Le Puy
Loire (Inf.)	Nantes
Loiret	Orleans
Lot	Cahors
Lot et Garonne	Agen
Lozère	Mende
Maine et Loire	Angers
Manche	St. Lo
Marne	Chalons-sur Marne
Marne (Haute)	Chaumont
Mayenne	Laval
Meurthe	Nancy
Meuse	Bar-le-Duc
Morbihan	Vannes
Moselle	Metz
Nievre	Nevers
Nord	Lille
Oise	Beauvais
Orne	Alençon
Pas de Calais	Arras
Puy de Dome	Clermont
Pyrenees (Bas)	Pau
Pyrenees (Hautes)	Tarbes
Pyrenees (Orient)	Perpignan
Rhin (Bas)	Strasbourg
Rhin (Haut)	Colmar
Rhone	Lyon
Saone (Haut)	Vesoul
Saone et Loire	Macon
Sarthe	Le Mans
Seine	Paris*
Seine (Inf.)	Rouen
Seine et Marne	Melun
Seine et Oise	Versailles
Sevres (Deux)	Niort
Somme	Amiens
Tarn	Alby
Tarn et Garonne	Montauban
Var	Draguignan
Vaucluse	Avignon
Vendée	Bourbon Vendée
Vienne	Poitiers
Vienne (Haute)	Limoges
Vosges	Epinal
Yonne	Auxerre

* Paris, the capital of France, favorably situated on the Seine, is the gayest, and, in some respects, the finest city in the world. Its origin is unknown. In the time of Cæsar it was the chief city of the Parisii, and occupied only the small island on the Seine, still called the Cité or Isle du Palais. In 486 Paris passed into the hands of the Franks, and was the capital of the Merovingian dynasty of their kings. Under the second dynasty it became the property of one of the great barons (the Count of Paris), and toward the close of the ninth century it waa erected into a new fief, under the title of the duchy of France. In 987, Hugh Capet, the duke, was elected king, and the city was ever after the capital of the kingdom, as it is now of the Napoleon empire. The city, originally confined to the island, gradually extended to the opposite banks, and in the seventeenth century already occupied all the apace within the boulevards, or bulwarks, which mark the site of its fortifications. The construction of the city is irregular, the houses lofty, and the streets narrow, with the exception of a few—as the Rue de la Paix, Castiglione, Rivoli, Royale, &c., which are truly magnificent. The elegance and taste displayed in the arrangement of the stores, the splendor and richness of the *passages* Vivienne, Colbert, Vero-Dodat, Cholseul, de l'Opera, des Panoramas, &c., and the galleries sparkling with bronze and gilding, strongly excite the wonder of strangers. The city is surrounded by a fortified wall and a series of forts, constructed by Louis Philippe. The magnificent public buildings, churches, noble palaces, grand architecture, museums, galleries of arts, libraries, hospitals, and other useful institutions, attest the wealth, skill, and labor, which for successive ages have been bestowed by French sovereigns on their chief city.

Among the public buildings may be enumerated, the palace of the Tuileries (now the palace of Louis Napoleon), the Louvre, the Palais Royal, the Palais Bourbon, the Hotel des Invalides (beneath whose dome rest the remains of the emperor Napoleon), the Hotel de Ville, the Bourse or money exchange, the Palais du Justice, the Ecole Militaire, &c. Among the churches are, the metropolitan cathedral of Notre Dame, the Pantheon, the Madeleine, and the church of St. Germain des Pres. Of the hospitals there are, the Hotel Dieu, near Notre Dame, the Sol Petriere, Val de Grace, and the Hotel des Invalides. The latter is by far the most important of all the establishments in the French capital, devoted to the support of the aged and infirm, both on account of the grandeur of its buildings, and the benefits which it confers on its inmates. It is intended for the support of disabled officers and soldiers, or those who have been in active service upward of thirty years. Paris is famed for its magnificent charitable institutions. The bridges which span the Seine are twenty-two in number; the most noted are, those of Jena, Austerlitz, Louis XVI., the Pont Neuf, the Pont Royal, the Pont des Arts, the

Productive Resources.—Two thirds of the people of France are engaged in agriculture, and a large proportion of them are proprietors of the soil. Among the products are, Indian corn, wheat, rye, buckwheat, barley, potatoes, oats, peas, beans, tobacco, olives, beets (for making sugar), apples, pears, plums, peaches, figs, oranges, lemons, wool, hemp, raw silk, flax, madder, &c. The cultivation of the grape occupies the principal attention of the French agriculturist. The grapes of France yield 250 different kinds of wine. Over five millions of acres are covered by the vine, and the annual yield is nearly a million of gallons. Coal and iron abound in various parts of France. There are many mineral springs.

Manufactures.—The annual product of the manufactures of France amount, in the aggregate, to about $400,000,000, viz., of silks, $20,000,000; woollens, $50,000,000; hemp, flax, and lace, $50,000,000; cottons and muslins, $40,000,000; leathers, $30,000,000; watches, clocks, jewelry, &c., $20,000,000; metals, $40,000,000; soaps, $12,000,000; refined and beet-root sugar, $10,000,000; and various other manufactures of minor importance. The manufacture of paper has long been pre-eminent in France, and the finest descriptions are produced.

Railroads and Canals.—The railroads of France centre at Paris, and thence diverge to every point. The aggregate length of railroads is about 3,000 miles. Most of the railways of France were built by government, and are leased to companies, or individuals. The canals of France, 86 in number, have an aggregate length of 2,350 miles. The principal is the Canal du Midi, 180 miles long, 144 feet broad, and six feet deep, which unites the Atlantic with the Mediterranean. There are also canals between the Seine and Loire; the Seine toward the Scheldt; the Rhone and Loire, 73 miles long; the Rhone and Rhine, &c.

Commerce.—The imports and exports of France amount to about $200,000,000 each annually. The most important commercial towns are, Paris, Lyons, Rouen, St. Etienne, Beaucaise, Aix, Toulouse, Montpellier, Strasbourg, Mulhausen, Perpignan, Nancy, and Lille. The principal ports are, Marseilles, Havre, Bordeaux, Rochelle, Dunkerque, Boulogne, Dieppe, Bayonne, &c. The chief articles of import are, horses, cattle, raw silk, tallow, peltry, wool, leaf-tobacco, dyewoods, oil, various metals, hemp, cotton, indigo, sulphur, colonial produce, and spices. The exports consist of the principal manufactures of the country, and wines, brandies, perfumery, &c., with fruits and confectionary. The mercantile tonnage is about 500,000 tons.

Education.—The university of France embraces the whole system of national education, and includes all the educational institutions of the country, from the lowest schools up to the greatest colleges. The supervision is intrusted to a council, and a corps of inspectors, and each commune is obliged by law to support schools for elementary instruction. The number of institutions belonging to the university was, lately, as follows: 41 national colleges, with 626 professors, 5,779 internal, and 8,870 external students; 318 commu-

Pont du Carrousel, &c. Among the literary and scientific institutions of Paris are, the university, the college of France, the Jardin des Plantes, the conservatory of arts and trades, national observatory, &c. Paris has several magnificent promenades, among which are the Tuileries, the Champs Elysees, the garden of the Luxembourg, Jardin des Plantes (the latter contains the most extensive collection of specimens in the animal, vegetable, and mineral kingdom ever made), &c. The principal public "places" are, the Place Vendome (in the centre of which is the column and statue of Napoleon), the Place des Victories, the Place Royale, the Place du Chatêlet, the Place du Carrousel, the Place de la Concorde (in which is situated the obelisk of Luxor, brought from Egypt), and the Place de la Bastille, the site of the stateprison of that name, which was destroyed by the revolutionary mob in 1789. Of the public libraries, the Bibliotheque National (which contains nearly a million of volumes, besides an immense collection of manuscripts, maps, engravings, medals, and antiquities), the arsenal, the pantheon (before mentioned), and the institute of France. The cemeteries or burial-grounds are all without the city. Pere la Chaise is the most noted and the most beautiful of them.

The manufactures of Paris comprise principally articles of taste and fancy-work, such as artificial flowers, watches, jewelry, toys, &c. The Gobelin tapestry, manufactured at Paris, is celebrated the world over.

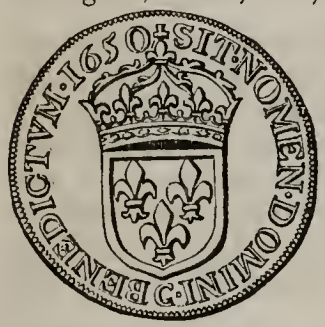
The population of Paris, in 1804, was only 547,756; in 1817, 713,996; in 1827, 890,451; in 1836, 909,126; in 1851, 1,053,262. The city has, besides, a floating population of from 100,000 to 150,000 who resort there for business or pleasure.

nal colleges; 146 institutions; 1,114 boarding-schools; 54 normal schools; and 42,318 primary schools.

Religion.—All are controlled by the state; the Roman catholic predominates; not more than 3,000,000 are protestants. There are 14 archbishops, 66 bishops, 174 vicars-general, 660 canons, 3,400 cures, 26,000 desservans, 6,200 vicaires, altogether of clergy about 37,000. The bishops have each $3,000 a year, and the working clergy $100 to $300 a year. Cost to the state, 35,000,000 francs.

Population.—At the end of the seventeenth century, was 19,669,320; in 1762, 21,769,163; in 1784, 24,800,000; in 1791, 26,363,600; in 1801, 27,349,003; in 1806, 29,080,150; in 1811, 29,092,734; in 1821, 30,461,875; in 1826, 31,858,937; in 1831, 32,569,223; in 1836, 33,540,928; in 1841, 34,400,000; in 1846, 35,400,486; and in 1851, 35,781,628.

Foreign Possessions.—Algiers, Senegal and Goree, Bourbon and St. Mary, in Africa; Martinique and Guadaloupe, in the West Indies; Cayenne, in South America; St. Pierre, and Miquelon, near Newfoundland; Pondicherry, Chandernagore, Mahe, &c., in Asia.



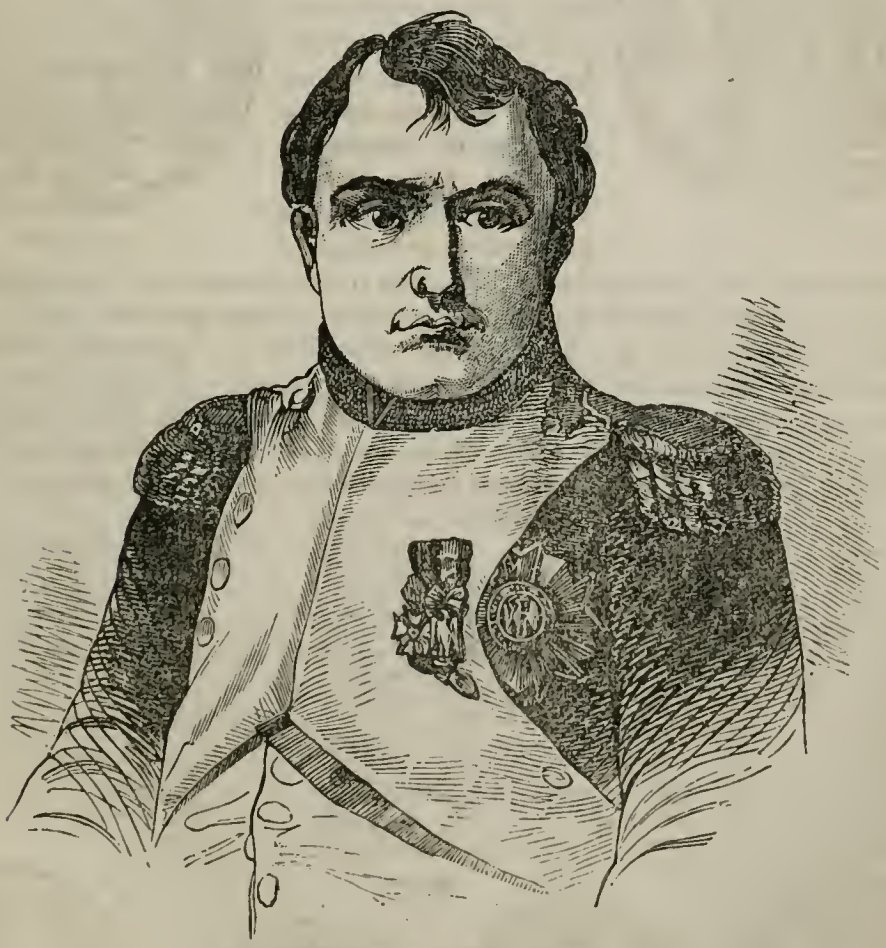
Half Crown, 50 cents.

History.—France, formerly called Transalpine Gaul, or Gaul beyond the Alps, to distinguish it from Cisalpine Gaul on the Italian side of the Alps, formerly included, in addition to its present territory, the duchy of Savoy, the cantons of Switzerland, then called Helvetia, the Netherlands, and all that part of Germany which lies west of the Rhine. Little is known of this extensive country previous to its subjugation by Julius Cæsar, B. C. 48, except the determined resistance made to him by its inhabitants. For about four centuries it remained a Roman province. In the fifth century after Christ, some German and other tribes, whose country lay between the Rhine and the Elbe, united for the defence of their liberty against the Romans, under the denomination of "Franks" or "free men," and headed by their king Pharamond, crossed the Rhine; after alternate successes and reverses, they succeeded in conquering Gaul, and laying the foundation of the French monarchy, which obtained its *acme* of power and prosperity under Charlemagne, who, having made himself master of Germany, and part of Italy, became the founder and first sovereign of the German empire, which remained in the possession of his descendants until 888, when Germany and Italy were finally separated from France. Louis V., the last of the Carlovingian race, died 987, and Hugh Capet seized the kingdom, which was then greatly reduced, but which, under the Capetian dynasty, gradually increased. The last count of Dauphine bestowed that province on Philip the Fair, stipulating that the eldest son of the reigning monarch should always take the title, and bear the arms of the Dauphin. William, duke of Normandy, having made himself king of England in 1066, France became involved in almost perpetual wars with that nation. On the death of Charles IV., 1328, his grandson by the mother's side, Edward III. of England claimed the throne, and on its being bestowed on Philip of Valois (the posthumous daughter of Charles being prevented from reigning by the Salic law). Edward proclaimed war against Philip, and in 1836 landed in France with an army of 30,000 men; gained the famous battle of Cressy, and took possession of Calais, in 1356; the French king was defeated at Poictiers, and carried to England, where he died unransomed. In 1417, Henry V. of England landed in France, overran great part of the country, and compelled Charles VI. to sign the treaty of Troyes, by which, on the death of Charles, Henry was to possess the crown. Both kings died shortly after, but Henry VI. of England, then an infant, was proclaimed king to the exclusion of the dauphin, Charles VII.,

who, by the assistance of the heroic maid of Orleans, recovered his dominions, and regained all France, except Calais, from the English. At the siege of Compiegne she was taken prisoner, and put to death. August 24, 1572 (St. Bartholomew's day), is memorable for the bloody massacre of the Huguenots, in which the brave Admiral Coligny and 90,000 protestants perished. The reigns of Louis XIV. and XV., from 1643 to 1774, is an epoch not only in French, but European history. The great names of Cardinal Mazarin, of Turenne, and Conde, Corneille, Fenelon, Bossuet, and Massilon, Descartes, Pascal, Moliere, Boileau, Voltaire, Rousseau, Lafontaine, Larochefoucauld, and Lafayette, are sufficient to immortalize the age and country which produced them. In 1789, the French revolution, or "reign of terror" commenced, under Robespierre, and in 1792, France was declared a republic. The following year, Louis XVI. and his queen, Maria Antoinette, were guillotined. In 1799, Bonaparte was made first consul;

Six Francs $1.06.

Thirty Sols, 25 cents.



NAPOLEON BONAPARTE.

in 1804, France was declared an hereditary empire, and Bonaparte emperor of France and king of Italy. The conquests of this extraordinary man enormously increased the dominions of France, which, in 1810, extended to the Baltic sea; in 1812, Napoleon invaded Russia, with an army of nearly half

a million men; was defeated; and in 1814, the allied armies of England, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, took possession of Paris, and Napoleon abdicated the thrones of France and Italy, and retired to Elba, whence he returned, and received a final overthrow at the battle of Waterloo, in 1815. He died at St. Helena, in 1821. The Bourbons were restored; Louis XVIII. died in 1824, and was succeeded by Charles X., who, in 1830, after three days' fighting in the streets of Paris, was expelled from France, and Louis Philippe, duke of Orleans, was crowned king of the French. In February, 1848, Louis Philippe, after a brief contest with the Parisians, fled to England with his family; France was declared a republic, a provisional government was organized, a constitution adopted, and Louis Napoleon, the nephew of the late emperor, elected the first president, who sought to strengthen his hold on the French people by reviving, on every possible occasion, the most agreeable souvenirs of his uncle's rule; while at the same time he incessantly disavowed all ambitions sentiments. He thus managed to quiet apprehension, and played with the parliament, till near the close of the term for which he was elected; when, before sunrise, on the morning of December 2, 1851, by a sudden *coup d'etat*, he swept into prison or banished every statesman and general in Paris known to be favorable to the republic, dissolved the assembly, shot down peaceable citizens who gathered in the streets, possessed himself of all power, and then submitted his name for president for ten years, with constitutive power, but allowing no one to oppose him. After his election he promulgated a constitution, which virtually gave him supreme authority. On November 4, 1852, he assumed the title of Napoleon III., emperor of the French, king of Algiers, and protector of the holy places.

Forty Francs, $7.66.

Five Francs, 93 cents.

Reverse Side.

SOVEREIGNS OF FRANCE.

Charlemagne..... 768	Robert..... 996	John II.....1350	Louis XV.....1715
Louis I..... 814	Henry I.....1031	Charles V.....1364	Louis XVI.....1774
Charles II..... 840	Philip I.....1060	Charles VI.....1380	[Louis XVII. died.]
Louis II..... 877	Louis VI.....1108	Charles VII.....1422	Republic.....1792
Carloman and Louis III 879	Louis VII.....1137	Louis XI.....1461	Napoleon Bonaparte.1804
Carloman..... 882	Philip II 1180	Charles VIII.....1483	Louis XVIII.....1814
Charles (usurper).... 884	Louis VIII.....1223	Louis XII.....1498	Charles X.....1824
Eudo or Hugh..... 888	Louis IX.....1226	Francis I.....1515	Louis Philippe.....1830
Charles III..... 898	Philip III.....1270	Henry II.....1547	Republic, and Louis Napoleon Bonaparte elected President...1848
Rudolph..... 923	Philip IV.....1285	Francis II.....1559	
Louis IV..... 936	Louis X.....1314	Charles IX.....1560	
Lothaire III..... 954	John 1316	Henry III.....1574	Louis Napoleon declared Emperor....1852
Louis V..... 986	Philip V.....1316	Henry IV.....1589	
Hugh Capet..... 987	Charles IV.....1323	Louis XIII.....1610	
	Philip de Valois.....1328	Louis XIV.....1643	

Louis d'or, $4.50.

⅓ Crown, 12 cents.

50 Centimes, 8 cents.

One Franc, 18 cents.

REPUBLIC OF ANDORRE.

This is a small, independent state, on the southern declivity of the Pyrenees, between the department of Ariége in France, and the district of Urgel in Spain. It stretches from north to south about thirty-six miles, and from east to west about thirty miles, comprising three mountain valleys, and the basin formed by their union. These valleys are among the wildest and most picturesque in the Pyrenees, and the mountains, with their immense peaks, by which they are enclosed, among the highest and least accessible. It is watered by several small rivers, the recipient of which, the Embalin, falls into the Segre, an affluent of the Ebro. It has little arable land, but a considerable extent of excellent pasture grounds, sheltered by vast forests of fir. The inhabitants depend principally on their flocks and iron mines, the produce of the latter finding a ready market in Spain. This little state, though connected in some degree with both its powerful neighbors, has preserved its independence for about 1,000 years. The government is composed of a council of twenty-four members, chosen for life, each commune electing four. The council elect two syndics, who enjoy considerable authority, convoking the assemblies, and carrying on the government when they are not sitting. It is to Charlemagne that Andorre owes its independence. Population, from 7,000 to 8,000, divided among six communes. Andorre, the principal town, has about 2,000 inhabitants

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SPAIN.

Half-Dollar, 50 cents.

The kingdom of Spain includes the greater portion of a peninsula, which is the most southern and the most western portion of Europe. The peninsula is only connected with the continent by an isthmus 100 miles broad, and which is traversed by the Pyrenees, almost insulating Spain, and Portugal, which occupies the remaining portion of the peninsula, from the rest of Europe. Spain lies between 36° and 44° north latitude, and 3° 8′ east and 9° 18′ west longitude, and is bounded north by the Bay of Biscay and France, east and south by the Mediterranean and the straits of Gibraltar, and west by Portugal and the Atlantic. Its superficial area is 182,706 square miles. Population, 13,732,000.

Physical Aspect.—The shape of Spain resembles that of a very irregular pentagon, the longest side of which faces the north. The coast line is, on the whole, pretty regular, without those great and sudden indentations that characterize the shores of other countries, though an exception may be made as regards the coast of Gallicia, which is fringed with bays and headlands, the principal among the former being the bays of Betanzos, Pontevedra, and Vigo; and among the latter the capes Estaca, Ortegal, and Finisterre. The surface is very much diversified, and intersected with mountains; but the whole may be described as a table-land of considerable elevation, Madrid,* the capital, being

* Madrid, the capital of Spain, is situated on some sand-hills on the left bank of the Manzanares, about 2,200 above the level of the sea, in latitude 40° 25′ 7″ north, and longitude 3° 33′ 8″ west, being near the centre of the kingdom. It is nearly eight miles in circuit, of a compact form, contains about 8,000 houses, 146 churches, chapels, oratories, and other religious houses, 18 hospitals, 13 colleges, 15 academies, 15 public libraries, six pris-

2,173 feet above the sea, which is the average height of the towns in the interior. Gibraltar is a well-known promontory, three miles long, half a mile wide, and 1,439 feet high, on a spacious bay, at the southern extremity of Spain, near the entrance to the Mediterranean. It belongs to Great Britain, who highly prizes it as a naval station, and, at an immense expense, has made it the strongest fortress in the world.

Mountains.—Five chains of mountains are pretty clearly defined, running from east to west through the peninsula. 1. The Pyrenees (8,000 feet in height) extend from the Mediterranean westward to the frontiers of Portugal, where they are called the Asturian mountains. 2. The Iberian chain extends along the southern frontier of Leon and Old Castile. 3. The Toledo mountains, which intersect Estremadura and New Castile. 4. The Sierra (like a saw) Morena, north of Andalusia. 5. The Sierra Nevada or Snowy ridge (9,000 feet in height) extends from Cadiz eastward to the Mediterranean. These successive ranges have several spurs or buttresses. Many of the mountains are bare crags, but in Catalonia, Aragon, and Navarre, there are forests of fir, oak, cork, chestnut, and beech, on the sides of the mountains.

Rivers and Harbors.—The rivers of Spain form as important a feature as its mountains. They number upward of 200, but few of them are navigable. About 50 of them flow into the Atlantic, and 20 into the Mediterranean. The Tagus, Douro, and Guadiana, pass through Portugal; the beautiful Guadalquiver disembogues near Cadiz, the Bidassoa is a boundary stream on the French frontier, the Ebro, Guadarranque, Guadiana, and Segura, empty themselves into the Mediterranean. The harbors are few. Biscay is a precipitous coast. The Mediterranean ports are generally sand-barred.

Islands.—The Balearic islands, consisting of Majorca, Minorca, Ivica, and some others, are situated in the Mediterranean. Majorca is the largest, having an area of 1,300 square miles. The surface is hilly, and the northern half consists of high ranges of mountains, divided by deep valleys and gullies, bordered by precipices. The southern portion is finely variegated by cornfields, vineyards, olive-groves, orchards, and meadows. The whole country is well-watered by rivulets and springs; and in some parts marsh predominates. The climate is mild and healthy, and winter little known. The principal towns are, Palma, Falaniche, Manacor, Soller, Leuchmajor, Pollenza, and Bonalbufar. Minorca, 38 miles east of Majorca, contains 240 square miles, one fourth of which is barren and waste. The chief wealth of the inhabitants consists of wild stock. Ivica is 28 miles long and 14 broad, and yields wheat and a variety of fine fruits, but its principal product is salt from the lagunes. The people are more attached to fishing than agriculture, the women only attending to the latter.

Climate.—The climate of Spain is greatly diversified, the temperature of the air always varying less near the coast than in the interior, and more equable in the maritime than in the other provinces. Winter is almost unknown. An everlasting spring seems to prevail in this delightful country.

ons, 15 granite gates, 85 squares and plazzas, and 50 public wells, which supply excellent water, brought from the mountains 30 miles distant. The modern part of the city is fine, and the Calle de Alcala is reckoned one of the finest streets in Europe, and is the only fine street in Madrid. The royal palace is a large square pile of buildings, each of its fronts being 470 feet in length by 160 in height, all built of white stone, enclosing a court of 140 square feet, and is fitted up with the greatest magnificence. The picture-gallery is also another fine building. Every Spaniard is proud of the prado of Madrid. It consists of a spacious walk of about two miles in length on the east side of the city, adorned with rows of trees and several fountains, and is the great resort of all ranks and classes in the evenings. There are also two promenades on the west side, very fine, but not so celebrated. Madrid has three theatres, and several scientific and literary institutions, among which are, the Royal Spanish Academy, the Royal Academy of History, and the Estudios Reales de San Isidro, a university with sixteen professors. Charitable and other benevolent institutions are numerous, and some are amply provided with funds; but the management having always been in the hands of the clergy, the funds have been spent in building monasteries and churches, rather than applied to the charitable purposes intended by the donors. The population is variously stated at 170,000 to 259,000. Madrid is probably the most expensive capital in Europe, being situated in the midst of a sterile country, where there is no pasture land, no rivers, scarcely any gardens, and no easy communication with the sea, or with any distant or more productive provinces; notwithstanding these drawbacks, the markets are well supplied. The streets of Madrid are generally dirty.

Political Divisions.—The following table exhibits the names of the old provinces, with their modern subdivisions. The provincial capitals are of the same names as the provinces, except Pamplona, the capital of Navarre, Palma, of the Balearic isles, and Santa Cruz de Teneriffe, of the Canary isles.

Old Provinces.	New Provinces.
Andalusia	Cordova
	Jaen.
	Granada.
	Almeria.
	Malaga.
	Sevilla.
	Cadiz.
	Huelva.
Aragon	Saragossa.
	Huesca.
	Teruel.
Asturias	Oviedo.
Catalonia	Barcelona.
	Tarragona.
	Lerida.
	Gerona.
New Castile	Madrid.
	Toledo.
	Ciudad Real.
	Cuenca.
	Guadalaxara.
Old Castile	Burgos.
	Logrono.
	Santander.
	Avila.
	Segovia.
	Soria.
	Valladolid.
	Palencia.
Estremadura	Badajoz.
	Caceres.
Navarre	Navarre.
Galicia	Coruna.
	Lugo.
	Orense.
	Pontevedra.
Leon	Leon.
	Salamanca.
	Zamora.
Murcia	Murcia.
	Albacete.
Valencia	Valencia.
	Alicante.
	Castellon de la Plana.
Alava	Vitoria.
Biscay	Bilboa.
Guipuzcoa	St. Sebastian.
	Balearic Isles.
	Canary Isles.

Productive Resources.—The wheat of Spain, though of very various qualities, is generally excellent, and its bread is said to be the best in Europe. Wine is raised abundantly throughout the country; and the coast districts of Xeres, Rota, Malaga, Benicarlo, and Alicant, furnish large quantities for exportation. Among the other productions of the soil are, oats, barley, maize, rice, oil, sugar, hemp, flax, *esparto* or sedge, cotton, saffron, barilla, honey, and silk, with all the European vegetables, and some even of those of the warmer regions. The fruits are, lemons, bitter and sweet oranges, pomegranates, dates, olives, almonds, pistachio nuts, apples, pears, cherries, peaches, and chestnuts. The mineral wealth of Spain is very great. The quicksilver mines of Almaden yield about 6,000 cwt. of metal, and 60 cwt. of cinnabar. The lead mines of Adra, near Malaga, are rich. In Andalusia and Catalonia there are said to be rich mines of gold, silver, lead, copper, iron, antimony, zinc, manganese, cobalt, nitre, &c., which were formerly worked. Coal abounds in the Pyrenees, and other places, and salt in Cordova.

Manufactures.—It might have been expected, from the abundance of wool and silk in Spain, that her manufactures would be in a thriving state. The Moors introduced the silk manufacture; but since the expulsion of that industrious people this is lost to Spain, except at Valencia, where about 3,000 people are employed in this branch of manufacture. The blades of Toledo were once famous over Europe. Porcelain, paper, cards, and tapestry, are manufactured to some extent.

Commerce.—The commerce of Spain is small. Its foreign trade consists now in the export of wines, fruits, brandies, wool, silk, lead, quicksilver, barilla, and a few other articles, amounting in the aggregate to nine or ten millions of dollars annually. The imports consist of sugar, cocoa, salt, fish, spices, rice, butter, cheese, hides, cotton, wool, and almost every species of manufactured commodity, amounting to about fifteen millions of dollars a year.

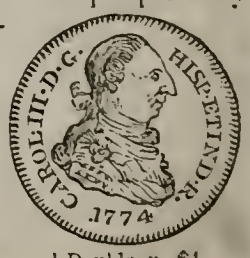
Education.—The system of education in Spain is very imperfect for the masses. Their plans of instruction are antiquated, and seem to be so directed as to spread error, and encourage ignorance, rather than knowledge. The lower classes seldom learn to read and write, and those above them are but imperfectly instructed. There are fifteen universities in Spain, but the objects for which they were founded are completely disregarded.

Government.—Hereditary sovereignty in male or female line; and a cortez or representative assembly, composed of two co-legislative bodies with equal powers, viz.: a senate and a congress of deputies. The Basque or Biscayan provinces and Navarre still retain their ancient laws, and are governed by their own cortez.

Old Pillar or Cannon Dollar, $1.

History.—Spain was probably peopled by the Celtæ from Gaul in its northern districts, and in its southern by African colonists. The Phœnicians, three centuries before the Christian era, founded the town of Barano, now Barcelona. The Carthagenians and Romans contested in the second Punic war for the possession of Spain, which Cæsar made a Roman province, and as such it continued for 400 years. On the downfall of the Roman empire the Suevi, Vandals, and Alani, invaded the country; in 419 Valia founded the dominion of the Visigoths in Spain. In the eighth century the Moors or Saracens, after conquering several Gothic possessions in Africa, invaded Spain, and established themselves in the southern provinces. Civil wars ensued, and twelve or fourteen petty principalities or kingdoms were formed. In 1210, their rulers united and reconquered most of the country from the Moors, who had raised it to great prosperity. All the kingdoms in Spain (not in Portugal) were united by the marriage of Ferdinand, king of Aragon, with Isabella, queen of Castile, in 1474. The Moors were driven out of their last possession, Granada, and 170,000 families expelled from Spain. In 1492, Columbus, a Genoese in the service of Spain, discovered America, and added vast territories to the Spanish dominions. In 1516, Charles V., emperor of Germany, succeeded to the throne of Spain in right of his mother, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. On his abdication the crown of Spain devolved on his son Philip II., who married Queen Mary of England, and after her death attempted the invasion of that country by the celebrated Armada, which was destroyed by a storm before it could reach Britain. Early in the seventeenth century Philip III. murdered or expelled from Spain nearly a million of Moors and Jews, who were his best subjects. Spain rapidly declined, various wars took place with France and England, and Gibraltar was captured by the British in 1704. Napoleon invaded Spain in 1808, and named his brother Joseph king. The Spaniards applied to England for aid; it was given, and the duke of Wellington, after a series of battles, drove the French from Spain, and restored Ferdinand to his dominions. In 1823–'25 Spain lost the whole of her continental possessions in America, and other vast empire in the two Indies. She now only retains Cuba and Porto Rico in the western, and Manilla in the eastern hemisphere. The Spaniards are a mixed race, and unite the blood of the Celts, Romans, Vandals, Goths, and Arabs. The people vary in character and dialects in different provinces, as these distinct breeds more or less predominate. They are a bold and a proud race, devoid of industry, delighting in bloodshed, faithless, jealous, and vindictive. The peasantry now constitute the true nobility of Spain, and under a constitutional government might become again a great nation. The Biscayans (300,000) differ much from the Spanish in language and manners, and are a free and bold race, who are retained with difficulty in subjection to the government at Madrid.

One Doubloon, $16.



½ Doubloon, $4.

SOVEREIGNS OF SPAIN.

Ferdinand V. and Isabella.....1474	Philip II.....1555	Lewis I.....1724	Ferdinand VII.....1808
Philip I.....1504	Philip III.....1598	Philip V.....724	Joseph Bonaparte....1808
Joan.....1506	Philip IV.....1621	Ferdinand VI.....1745	Ferdinand VII.....1814
Charles I.....1516	Charles II.....1665	Charles III.....1759	Isabella II.....1833
	Philip V.....1700	Charles IV.....1788	

PORTUGAL.

Half-Joe, $6 to $8.50.

The kingdom of Portugal, the most western state of Europe, occupies the western part of the Spanish peninsula, and lies between 37° and 42° 10′ north latitude, and 6° 15′ and 9° 10′ west longitude, and is bounded on the north and east by Spain, and on the south and west by the Atlantic ocean. Its length is about 350 miles, its average breadth about 100 miles, and comprises a superficial area of 34,500 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The general aspect of Portugal is similar to that of Spain, and, geographically considered, it can be regarded in no other light than as a portion of Spain. All the mountain chains and rivers by which she is traversed originate in the eastern and more extensive portion of the peninsula.

Mountains.—The principal mountain chain, the Sierra de Estrella, runs southeast and northwest from the Spanish frontier. The culminating point of this chain, near Covilha, is 7,524 feet above the level of the sea. Another chain, the Sierra Monchique, runs across the province of Algarve, the most southerly in the kingdom, terminating in Cape St. Vincent. There are a great number of inferior chains, and the provinces to the north of the Douro are especially encumbered with mountains.

Rivers, Lakes, &c.—The great rivers, the Tagus, Douro, Minho, and Gaudiana, have their sources in Spain, though they are joined by some considerable affluents in their passage through Portugal. There are but few lakes, and these of no importance; but mineral and hot springs are not uncommon. Water, in many districts, particularly in the southern, is both scarce and bad; and, in consequence, extensive tracts in the great plain of Alemtejo and other provinces are nearly uninhabitable.

Climate.—The climate is, in general, milder and more agreeable than in Spain, owing to the height of the mountains, and the great extent of coast. In the rugged tracts of the northeast (Tras-os-Montes) the air is in many parts keen. In the valleys, and in the southern parts of the kingdom, the case is generally very different; but all along the coast the heat is tempered by the sea breezes. Snow seldom lies on the low ground; but the rains of winter are often heavy and long-continued; and at this season the vicinity of Lisbon and other parts of the country are subject to earthquakes. Violent hurricanes are also of frequent occurrence.

Geographical Divisions.—Portugal contains a population of about 2,400,000, and is divided into six provinces, which, with their chief towns and population are as follows:—

Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Population.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Population.
Douro	Oporto	75,000	Estremadura	Lisbon*	275,000
Tras-os-Montes	Braganza	5,000	Alemtejo	Elvas	10,000
Beira (Upper and Lower)	Coimbra	20,000	Algarves	Faro	8,000

Chief Towns.—The chief cities of Portugal, besides the capitals of the provinces named above, are, Evora, Guimaraens, Caldas do Geres, Viana, Peso da Regoa, Braganza, Chaves, Tavira, Sagres, Villa Nova, Figueira, Lamego, Aviero, Ovar, Setubal or St. Ubes, Braga, Botalha, and Torres Vedras, famous as the centre of the fortified lines constructed by Wellington in 1810.

* Lisbon, the capital of Portugal, is situated on the north bank of the Tagus, ten miles from the mouth of the river, where it is nine miles broad, and would shelter 10,000 sail of vessels. The city is built on a rising eminence, and has a picturesque appearance. It contains 40 parish churches, 99 chapels, and 75 convents or monasteries. The suburbs are beautiful. In 1755, an earthquake destroyed a large part of Lisbon, and 30,000 people. The entrance of the Tagus is protected by strong castles. That of St. Julian mounts 86 pieces of artillery There are many batteries along the river and coast; Belem castle stands conspicuous.

Productive Resources.—The principal object of cultivation in Portugal is the vine, which, with the olive and other fruit-trees, is cultivated with the utmost diligence in the valleys, and on the sides of the hills, in the northern sections of the country. The entire produce of port-wine amounts to about 100,000 pipes annually; of white wine, about 60,000 pipes. Other products are, oil, cork, drugs, and fruit; also wheat, barley, oats, flax, hemp, and other products of a northern latitude, are raised in the high grounds. The mineral products are considerable, though few mines, except those of iron, have been worked; among them are antimony, copper, lead, and gold-dust.

Manufactures.—Manufacturing establishments are but few in number, and are principally for the production of woollens, silk, and earthen-ware. Cotton has been attempted, and paper, glass, and gunpowder, are made in a few places. A very superficial knowledge of the most common mechanic arts exists.

Commerce.—The exports of Portugal consist almost entirely of raw produce, or of wine, oil, salt, wool, fruits, cork, &c.; the imports of cotton goods, hardware, woollens, fish, linens, earthenware, drugs, tea, coal, &c. The imports and exports average about $10,000,000 a year. Formerly Lisbon had about 400 large ships employed in the trade with South America, but now she has not more than fifty or sixty in all departments of her foreign trade, and those of comparatively small burden.

Education.—The language of Portugal is merely a dialect of the Spanish, differing but little more from the latter than Scotch from English. Education is, at once, little diffused and of bad quality. There is a university at Coimbra, besides which, 17 high seminaries, and numerous schools exist, affording instruction to about 33,000 pupils. With the exception of Camoens, few Portuguese authors are known beyond the limits of their country.

Government.—The government is an hereditary monarchy, with an upper and a lower representative chamber, both of which are elective, the franchise being vested in the holders of a certain small amount of fixed property. The cortes meet and dissolve at specified periods, without the intervention of the sovereign, and the latter has no veto on a law passed twice by both houses.

Religion.—The religion of Portugal is the Roman catholic (protestantism being prohibited), which contributes but little, if anything, to the morality of the people. The inquisition no longer interferes with the freedom of conscience, having been abolished in 1821. The Portuguese church is under the jurisdiction of a patriarch, with extensive powers; three archbishops and fourteen bishops.

Dobrao, $34.

History.—Portugal was known to the Phœnicians, Carthaginians, and Greeks, as a place, and under the name of Lusitania, when inhabited by a Celtic tribe, was conquered by the Romans. It followed the fortunes and fate of Spain, and in the eleventh century Alphonse VI., king of Leon and Castile, gave the territory as a dowry with his daughter to Henry, grandson of Robert king of France, for his bravery against the Moors. Alphonsus Henry, in 1139, gained a great victory over the Moors, and his soldiers crowned him king. In 1580, Philip II., king of Spain, conquered Portugal, and united it to his dominions; but in 1640 the Portuguese, under the duke of Braganza, regained their independence. In 1807, the French invaded the country, and the royal family escaped to Brazil. The French were expelled with the aid of the British, after a bloody conflict, and the king, Pedro, returned in 1821, Brazil becoming independent under his son in 1822. Pedro died in 1826, and the crown was usurped by Don Miguel, his brother. The emperor

of Brazil, who was now regent of Portugal, caused him to be expelled, and placed his daughter Maria on the throne in 1834. The country has since continued in rather a disturbed state. The vast colonies of Portugal are reduced to some small settlements in India, and the Pacific islands of Solor, Timor, and Midoro, on the coast of Guinea; Senegambia, Mozambique, Cape Verde, and St. Thomas islands, in Africa.

SOVEREIGNS OF PORTUGAL.

John IV.....1640	John V.....1707	John VI 1799
Alphonsus VI 1656	Joseph.....1750	Don Pedro.....1826
Peter II.....1668	Mary Frances Isabella.....1777	Maria de Gloria.....1826

SWITZERLAND.

Four Francs, $1.

Switzerland extends from 45° 50′ to 47° 50′ north latitude, and from 5° 50′ to 10° 30′ east longitude. Its extreme length from east to west is about 200 miles; its greatest breadth about 130. Its area has been very variously estimated at from 10,000 to nearly 19,000 square miles. It is bounded north by Baden, the lake of Constance, and Wirtemberg, east by the Tyrol, south by Lombardy and Sardinia, and west by France.

Physical Aspect.—Switzerland is the most mountainous region in Europe, with a gradual elevation from north to south, until the culminating point of the Alps is reached. The Higher, Middle, and Lower Alps, from 8,000 to 12,000 feet above the sea, are always covered with snow. The Lower Alps commence at 2,000 feet, the Middle at 5,000 feet, and the Higher at 8,000 feet, gradually rising in precipitous masses with naked sides to 15,170 feet above the sea; Mont Blanc, the loftiest point of the Alps, reaches an elevation of 15,800 feet. Four great roads cross the Alps from Switzerland to Italy: one over Mt. Simplon, one over Mt. St. Gothard, one over the Bernardins, and a fourth over Mt. Splugen. The glaciers present a scene of desolation where all animal and vegetable life is extinct; where no sound is heard but the thundering crash of vast icebergs and avalanches descending from mountain-tops into deep glens, and not unfrequently carrying with them huge masses of rock, which reverberate as they are dashed from crag to crag, as the thunder sounds in the fury of the mountain tempest. Amidst these awful scenes are verdant valleys, rich cornfields, picturesque villages, and numerous herds of cattle, sheep, and goats.

Rivers and Lakes.—Several of the great rivers of Europe have their rise in the Swiss countries. The Rhine, flowing from the neighborhood of Mount St. Gothard, runs 200 miles through the borders of Switzerland, passes through the stupendous ravines of the Rheinwald, which rises 3,000 feet on either side, clothed with stately firs; thence through the lake of Constance, and after passing Schaffhausen forms the celebrated cataract. The Rhône rises from a glacier in the Valais, which is a segment of a circle in the form of a fan, from whose fissures issues the "blue gushing arrowy Rhône." It receives several smaller streams before entering the lake of Geneva, through which it is said to take its course without mingling with the adjacent waters. After quitting Geneva it becomes a French river. Other rivers in Switzerland are the Tecino, the Tresa, and the Iron. The lakes of Switzerland are numerous; among

the principal are, Geneva or Leman, 1,230 feet above the sea, 40 miles long, which covers an area of 330 square miles, and is in some places 1,000 feet deep, but like all fresh-water lakes it is gradually filling up. On the one side the Alps rise with majestic grandeur, and on the other the lesser and more distant elevations of the Jura, each margin fringed with luxuriant cultivation; and in the month of May, the red-apple blossom, the emerald green of the meadows, and the hoary summits of the mountains, present the most marked contrasts. Constance lake, which partly belongs to the territory of Baden, is 1,161 feet above the sea. The Rhine passes through this lake, as the Rhône does through that of Geneva. Lugano is 25 miles long by 6 broad, and communicates with the Lago-Maggiore by the Tresa. Luzern, 1,408 feet above the sea, is 20 miles long by 8 to 10 miles broad, and has a depth of 600 feet. Zurich lake is very picturesque; 23 miles long by 4 broad. Neufchatel, about the same extent. Thun, 1,900 feet above the sea, with a depth of 350 feet, is 12 miles long by 3 to 4 broad.

Climate.—Cold in the mountains, temperate in the plains, and hot in summer in several of the valleys, especially in the canton of Tessin. The inferior limit of perpetual snow is 9,000 feet; the distance between snow and corn, 4,500 feet; between snow and trees, 2,800 feet; and between snow and the highest limit for the growth of trees (the Pinus Abies), 1,400 feet.

Animals.—The most remarkable native animals are the ibex and the chamois, which frequent the most inaccessible mountain ranges; the marmot is also a native of Switzerland; bears, wolves, and lynxes, are found in some cantons. The bearded vulture is of such strength that the ibex and chamois frequently become its prey; fish are plentiful in the lakes.

Population and Political Divisions.—The Swiss confederacy consists of twenty-two cantons, which, with their area, population, and chief towns, are as follows:—

Cantons.	Area sq. miles.	Population.	Chief Towns.
Zurich	685	231,576	Zurich.
Berne	2,562	407,913	Berne.*
Luzern	587	124 521	Luzern.
Schweiz	421	13,519	Schweiz.
Uri	338	40,650	Altorf.
Unterwalden	263	22,571	Sarnen. Stanz.
Glarus	280	29,348	Glarus.
Zug	85	15.322	Zug.
Fribourg	564	91,145	Fribourg.
Soleure	255	63,196	Soleure.
Basle	185	65,424	Basle. Leichstall.
Schaffhausen	120	31,125	Schaffhausen.
Appenzell	153	50,876	Trojen. Appenzell.
St. Gall	748	158,853	St. Gall.
Grisons	2,968	84,506	Chur.
Aargau	502	182,755	Aargau.
Thurgau	268	84,124	Frauenfeld.
Tessin	1,035	113.923	Bellinzona.
Vaud	1,182	183,582	Lausanne.
Valais	1,662	75,798	Sitten or Sion
Neufchatel	280	58,616	Neufchatel.
Geneva	91	58,666	Geneva.†

Productive Resources.—Among the agricultural products are, rye, oats, barley, buckwheat, maize, flax, hemp, &c. Switzerland is, however, almost wholly a pastoral country; the crops are scanty and precarious. Cattle, sheep, and goats, constitute the principal wealth of the inhabitants. The mineral riches of the mountains are but little known or explored; a few iron mines in the Jura being the only ones that deserve notice. There are numerous mineral springs, many of which are resorted to medicinally; and those at Bex, and others in the canton of Basle, furnish considerable quantities of salt. A few insignificant

*Berne, one of the handsomest cities in Europe, lies on the left bank of the Aar, 1,700 feet above the level of the sea. Zurich is beautifully situated at the outlet of Zurich lake, and is distinguished for its public institutions. Basle is situated on the Rhine, and is noted for its university, and the manufacture of ribands.

†Geneva is situated on the slopes of two hills divided by the Rhone, where it issues from the lake, forming in its course two islands, on one of which stands part of the town, and the other contains a fine promenade planted with trees, and adorned with a statue of the noted Jean-Jacques Rousseau. The two banks of the river, and the island, are now connected by a suspension-bridge; and a handsome quay, lined with fine buildings, has been constructed along the river. The streets are in general wide and commodious, except in the busy part of the town, where they are inconveniently narrow, and darkened by arcades. The churches are of very ordinary description; the principal is that of St. Peter, an ancient edifice, with a modern colonnade. The townhouse, the hospital, the museum of the fine arts, the museum of natural history, and that of the botanic garden, and the penitentiary, are the principal public buildings. Geneva is famous as having been the centre and asylum of the reformed religion. Its university, founded by Calvin, has long been distinguished as a seat of learning. The citizens of Geneva are noted for their industry, as well as for their scientific and literary attainments.

coal beds have been met with; but the remaining mineral products of any value are mostly confined to slate, marble, gypsum, granite, and other kinds of building stone.

Manufactures.—Notwithstanding the geographical disadvantages of Switzerland, the inhabitants have carried some branches of manufacturing industry to a considerable state of advancement. Most part of the agricultural inhabitants are almost wholly occupied during winter at the loom, or in other branches of manufacturing industry; and they also engage in them during the evenings throughout the year, and when their little patch of land does not require their attention. In the districts devoted to handloom labor from one to four looms are usually to be found in a cottage; the weavers being furnished with the warp, woof, &c., by the manufacturers, to whom they return the woven goods. In many secluded valleys steam-engines and mills may be seen at work, spinning and preparing cotton from the East Indies and United States. In Geneva the manufacture of watches (amounting to about 100,000 annually) and jewelry is carried to great perfection. The Swiss cotton, woollen, silk, and leather goods, are esteemed for their durability.

Commerce.—Though in the centre of Europe, Switzerland is much restricted in its commercial intercourse by the barriers of the Alps, and the prohibitory system of the neighboring states. The chief exports are, cattle, sheep, linen, lace, silks, jewelry, &c. The imports are principally corn, flax, raw-silk, cotton, spices, and various kinds of manufactured goods.

Education.—Education is extensive in the protestant cantons, but neglected in other districts. There is a university at Basle, and an excellent missionary institution. At Geneva there are several public and private educational establishments of good repute. Switzerland has produced many men whose names stand high in literature and science, among whom may be mentioned Rousseau, Mallet, Tissot, Beza, Casaubon, Necker, Stahl, Decandole, and Sismondi, in what are termed the French cantons; and Haller, the two Gesners, Lavater, Muller, Pestalozzi, Fellenberg, Holbein, and others of renown in the cantons bordering on Germany. About two thirds of the people speak German; 100,000, Italian; 50,000, Romanish, a corrupted Latin dialect; and the remainder, French.

Religion.—The number of Romanists are estimated at 600,000, the reformed church at 1,300,000, Jews, 2,000; and there are several sectarians. The Romish faith predominates in the cantons of Luzern, Uri, Schweiz, Unterwalden, Zug, Fribourg, Soleure, Tessin, and Valais. The protestant territories are Berne, Zurich, Basle, Schaffhausen, Vaud, Neufchatel, and Geneva. In the other cantons the two forms of Christianity pretty equally prevail, and the people live together in amity.

Government.—The cantons are united in a confederacy, which has lasted five centuries. In the national diet or parliament each canton has a single vote. The diet sits annually and alternately at Zurich, Berne, and Luzern. The chief magistrate of the canton in which the diet assembles is president for that year. Treaties of peace, or declarations of war, are decided by three fourths of the deputies, all other questions by a majority. Each canton has its own local government, with which the diet does not interfere. In some cantons there is a democratic constitution, in others a more aristocratic form; but cantonal independence is vigilantly guarded by all. The cantons contribute each their quota of men and money in the event of war, and can, combined, bring into the field about 50,000 men, of whom a proportion are artillery and cavalry. The arsenals are well stored, and the ordinary militia, or landwehr, comprises 70,000 men, of whom at least 10,000 are expert riflemen. The independence of Switzerland can therefore be well protected by its own brave men. About 30,000 Swiss soldiers are in the service of foreign nations.

Crown of Geneva, $1.

History.—Switzerland (originally called Helvetia) was invaded by the Romans under Julius Cæsar, who has left to posterity a faithful account of the tribes which then inhabited it. Switzerland, or Helvetia, was gradually subjugated by the power of Rome, and continued a Roman province until the dissolution of the empire. Christianity is supposed to have been introduced as early as the year 300. In 430 the Burgundians took possession of the southern and western districts. and the Alemanni of the northern and eastern. In 496, Clovis, king of France, conquered the Alemanni; and in 534 his sons subdued the Burgundians, and their joint territory was annexed to France, and remained so until the division of Charlemagne's empire in 843, when the Burgundian portion fell to the lot of Lothar, but was soon afterward reunited to the northern and eastern districts, under the sway of Louis the German. The Swiss mountaineers distinguished themselves at a very early period for their ardent love of civil and religious liberty, which they have ever since manifested with consistent and unswerving fixity of purpose, in spite of many and severe trials. At the time of the crusades, the peasantry asserted their privileges as freemen, and never afterward relinquished them. The towns of Zurich, Berne, Basle, Soleure, Uri, Schweiz, and Unterwalden, purchased or received in donation their territorial rights from the German emperors, and joined together to protect themselves against the attempted oppression of the nobility. In the commencement of the fourteenth century, Albrecht, son and successor of the count Rudolph of Hapsburg, strove to unite the forest towns, that is, the cantons of Schweiz, Uri, Zug, and Unterwalden, with his Austrian possessions, but the citizens steadily refused to renounce their allegiance to the German empire, and a brave band, among whom were Fürst, of Uri, and his celebrated son, William Tell, assembled and swore to defend with their lives the liberties of their country. On the first of January, 1308, the Swiss began a gallant struggle for independence, which lasted with little intermission till the close of the fifteenth century. Early in the sixteenth century the doctrines of the Reformation were introduced into Switzerland, and a civil war broke out between the cantons which embraced the protestant doctrines and those which adhered to the church of Rome. Calvin came from France to Geneva in 1536, and speedily became the leader of the Reformation in Switzerland. The internal tranquillity of Switzerland was not restored until the recognition of the independence of the Swiss confederation by the peace of Westphalia in 1648, but for nearly three centuries she was unmolested by any external enemy, and seems to have lost much of her spirit through the degenerating effect of petty rivalries and intestine broils. In 1798, the French army entered Geneva, to the number of 40,000, and having defeated the Bernese, united Geneva to the French republic, and established a new constitution in Switzerland, under the name of the Helvetian republic. Switzerland soon after became the arena of several severe contests between France and the allied armies, who entered it in triumph in 1813, after the decisive battle of Leipsig. In 1814, a new act of confederacy was entered into by the Swiss cantons, and the congress of Vienna, which met in 1815, recognised their independence and guarantied neutrality. The French revolutions of 1830 and 1848 caused for a time insurrection and turmoil among the cantons.

Five Batzen, 9 cents.

BELGIUM.

Ducatoon, 93 cents.

The kingdom of Belgium lies between 49° 31′ and 51° 27′ north latitude, and 2° 37′ and 6° east longitude, and is bounded on the north by Holland and the North sea, east by Prussia, south and southwest by France, and on the northwest by the North sea. Its superficial area is 12,569 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The greater part of the surface is flat, and highly cultivated. It rises in gradual elevations toward the south and east. South of the river Meuse the scenery is varied and picturesque, and in Luxemburg a branch of the Ardennes mountains and large forests impart a bold and romantic character to the country, especially on the banks of the Meuse and the Moselle. In the provinces of Flanders and Antwerp, the eye for miles sees nothing but a vast unbroken plain, covered with the most luxuriant cultivation, and presenting the appearance of gardens more than fields, through which the railroads pass with scarcely a cutting or embankment.

Rivers.—Belgium is well-watered; the Scheldt, after quitting the territory of France, passes through Hainault, Flanders, and Antwerp, where it divides into branches, which insulate the province of Zealand. The Meuse, Maas or Maese, rises in France, waters Namur, Liege, and Limburg, and falls into the Rhine; it is navigable throughout the whole of its course in Belgium. The Moselle separates part of Luxemburg from France.

Climate.—The climate of Belgium is cool and humid; not so much so, however, as that of Holland. It varies with locality, and the higher regions of the country enjoy a mild climate.

Chief Cities.—Few European countries present within the same area so many cities of note and interest to the lovers of antiquity and the fine arts, as Belgium. Brussels,* Antwerp,† Bruges,‡ Ghent, Liege, Namur, Louvain, are all places of historic note, and of architectural beauty.

Productive Resources.—Agriculture is the staple of the country; the

* Brussels, the capital of Belgium, on the Seine, in 50° 51′ north latitude, and 4° 28′ east longitude, is built on hills, and has a commanding appearance. In the upper town especially, the houses are lofty and elegant; the fosse which formerly surrounded the city was converted, during the reign of the emperor Joseph, into gardens and walks; and the city, which is seven miles in circumference, has seven gates, with extensive suburbs, fine gardens, and continuous streets, all combining to render Brussels a miniature Paris. The Hotel de Ville is one of the most imposing municipal structures in Europe: the church of St. Gudule has two huge Gothic towers; the richly stained windows, the high altar, the magnificent pulpit, carved by Van Bruggen in 1669, presented by the empress Maria Theresa, and the numerous monuments and statues, produce a grand effect. The field of Waterloo, south of Brussels, is a well-cult vated plain, on which a huge mound has been formed to commemorate the terrific battle which decided the fate of Napoleon, on the 18th of June, 1815. Population, 134,000.

† Antwerp, 25 miles north of Brussels, once contained 200,000 inhabitants, but now little more than one third of that number. It has the finest Gothic cathedral in Europe; the steeple, 441 feet in height, is ascended by 620 steps to within 30 feet of the top. It tapers upward, arch upon arch, in such graceful lightness, that Charles V. said it should be preserved under glass, and Napoleon observed, that it reminded him of Mechlin lace. The church is 500 feet long, 230 feet wide, and 360 feet high. Like the other churches of Belgium, it is rich in paintings and monuments of the fine arts. There are 66 chapels within its walls, and the paintings above the altar are by Rubens. In the centre of the cathedral is his *chef d'œuvre*, "the descent from the cross." With the exception of its churches, Antwerp posseses no public buildings of importance, but the old Spanish houses, the exchange built in the Venetian style, and the Hanseatic house, give a stately appearance to the city. Antwerp gave birth to Teniers, Vandyck, Snyders, Metzys, Jordaens, and others, illustrious in art and science.

‡ Bruges, with 50,000, and Ghent, with 90,000 inhabitants, possess many antique structures, and fine galleries of paintings. The country around is in the highest state of cultivation, and a large trade is carried on from Ghent, in the exportation of rare plants to the different European capitals. Bruges was anciently the capital of the Low Countries, and is still a perfect specimen of a town of the middle ages. Its political power lasted from the 13th to the 16th century; and the fame of her woollen manufactures was commemorated by the "Order of the Golden Fleece," instituted by Philip the Good: it is also celebrated as the seat of lace manufactures. The immense edifice termed "Les Halles," with its ponderous tower, on which watchmen are stationed night and day to look out for fires, is a leading feature of Bruges, and contains one of the pleasing chimes of musical bells for which Belgium is famed.

chief products are, wheat, rye, barley, oats, buckwheat, &c. Flax is a most profitable crop. Among its mineral products are, coal, iron, lead, calamine, and aluminous schiste. There are 40 mines in the kingdom, which cover an area of 126,000 acres.

Manufactures.—The great iron works at Seraing have iron and coal mines within their walls, and numerous manufactories: it is the largest establishment of the kind in Europe. There are extensive manufactories for the casting of cannon, making of fire-arms, of which there is a large export. The manufactures of lace at Mechlin, Bruges, Antwerp, of shawls, gilded leather, fine cloth, carpets, refined sugar, carriages, musical instruments, jewelry, paper, books, diamond-cutting, carving, malt, &c., give active employment to many thousand artisans.

Railroads and Canals.—Belgium was the first state in Europe in which a general system of railways was planned and executed by government. The undertaking was projected in 1833, and so rapid has the work been carried forward, the whole territory is now traversed by lines, which also extend into other states. The Great Northern railway, which unites Paris and Brussels, is deemed the most gigantic railway in the hands of one company in the world; it employs over 3,000 cars, and nearly 200 locomotives. Belgium has also about 300 miles of canals.

Commerce.—The exports and imports amount to about $75,000,000 each annually. The principal exports are the productions of its flourishing agriculture, numerous manufactures, and mineral products. The imports consist of colonial produce, and the wines and fruits of southern Europe.

Education.—The educational institutions of Belgium are of three grades: elementary schools, colleges, and universities. By the Belgic constitution education ceased to be compulsory; and the government has no control over it, except as regards the few schools paid by the state; the rest is left to individual enterprise, or the caprice of the communes. At least one third of the rising generation are absolutely without any regular instruction. Luxemburg and Namur are the best-educated provinces, and Flanders and Liege the two in which education is most neglected.

Population.—The population of Belgium is distinct from that of either France or Holland, but possesses some of the characteristics of both nations. In former days the Belgian citizens and craftsmen fought for their freedom against powerful and disciplined armies, and some of the most-celebrated men of Europe have been born or nurtured into greatness in the Low Countries. The population of Belgium is 4,335,319, of which one million are located in the cities and towns, and the remainder dwell in the communes or parishes.

Government.—A limited monarchy; legislative power vested in the king, and in two chambers, called the senate and the house of representatives, which latter are elected in the proportion of one representative for every 40,000 electors, whose qualification for voting is the payment annually of direct taxes, to the amount of eight dollars.

6 Stivers, 6 cents.

History.—The country of the Belgæ was early noted in European annals. Its inhabitants, under the name of Firl-bogs, according to tradition, invaded Ireland, A. M. 2503, and retained their conquests until driven out by the Danonians from Norway and Sweden, A. M. 2541. The title Gallia Belgica was given by the Romans to the seventeen provinces west of the Rhine, whose inhabitants were the Belgæ, Batavia, and the Frisi. These names disappeared before the foundation of the monarchy of the Franks; which, in the sixth and seventh centuries, included the seventeen provinces previously belonging to Gaul, in 843. By the peace of Verdun these

territorities were united to Germany, under feudal lords as governors, who soon assumed hereditary power, which was long and violently disputed by the active and intelligent inhabitants of the free cities of Belgium, Holland, and Germany. In the fifteenth century, the lordships of all the territory included under the name of "the Low Countries" came into the possession of the house of Burgundy; the country next became an appanage of the Spanish branch of the house of Austria, and in 1516 Philip the Fair left these provinces to Charles V., who, after having brought them under complete subjection, abdicated in favor of his son Philip in 1556, through whose persecutions and oppressions a fatal change came over the country: commerce and trade dwindled away; many of the merchants were reduced to beg for bread, great cities became half deserted, and the scattered inhabitants of villages were devoured by wolves. Thousands of the artisans fled from ruin and death to England, where they carried and established their manufacturing arts. Belgium remained under the Spanish dominion till the famous victory of Ramilies, gained by the duke of Marlborough, in 1706, when it again passed to Austria. It had been connected with Holland from the time of the duke of Burgundy, but it was now separate; while Holland, having attained its independence, continued to flourish as a republic. The Belgian provinces remained under Austria till they were conquered by the French, after two celebrated victories at Jemappes and Fleurus. It was annexed to the French republic in 1795. In 1815, it was made a part of Holland by the congress of Vienna. In 1830, incited by the revolution of Paris, the people rebelled, and, after a brief struggle, achieved their independence, Leopold, their present sovereign, becoming king in 1831.

HOLLAND.

2½ gilders, 90 cents.

This region of rivers, lakes, and canals, is situated between 50° 45′ and 53° 28′ north latitude, and 3° 23′ and 7° 28′ east longitude. It is bounded north and west by the German ocean, east by Hanover and Prussia, and south by Belgium. Its superficial area is 13,616 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—With the exception of some insignificant hill-ranges in Gelderland and Utrecht, and a few scattered heights in Over-Yssel, the whole kingdom of Holland is a continuous flat, partly formed by the deposites brought down by the rivers intersecting it, and partly conquered by human labor from the sea, which is above the level of a considerable portion of the country. Holland is consequently at all times liable to dangerous inundations. The west coast, however, from the Helder to the Hook of Holland, is partially protected by a natural barrier composed of a continuous range of sand-banks or *dunes*, thrown up by the sea, of great breadth, and frequently forty or fifty feet in height. But in other parts of the country, particularly in the provinces of Zealand, Friesland, and Gelderland, the sea is shut out by enormous artificial mounds or dikes, any failure in which would expose extensive districts to the risk of being submerged. In nothing, indeed, is the industry and perseverance of this extraordinary people so conspicuous as in the construction and maintenance of these dikes. They are usually 30 feet

high, and 70 feet broad at the base. Numerous canals* intersect the country, which is cultivated with skill, and covered with neat towns and handsome villas.

Rivers and Lakes.—The principal rivers of Holland are, the Rhine, Waal, and the Meuse, which are intimately connected, and the Scheldt. Lakes are numerous, and of small extent. The principal are, the Haarlem, 15 by 7 miles in extent, and the Bresbosch. The Zuyder-zee is a great gulf, which penetrates far inland. It occupies an area of 1,200 square miles, and was originally a large lake, the barrier between the sea, and which was broken through by an inundation in 1225. The Dollart, a similar inlet between Groningen and Hanover, was formed likewise by two irruptions of the sea, in 1277 and 1287.

Islands.—The islands off the coast are chiefly accumulations of sand and alluvial deposites, and are very numerous. In Zealand are the islands of Walcheren, Schouwen, North and South Beveland, Tholen, &c.; in South Holland, Goree, Over-Flackee, Voorn, Beierland, Ysselmond, &c.; Texel, Vlieland, Ter-Schelling, Ameland, Schiermonnick, and Borkum, opposite the Zuyder-zee and the coasts of Friesland and Groningen; and within the Zuyder-zee, Wieringen, Urk, Schokland, and Marken.

Political Divisions and Population.—Holland is divided into eleven administrative divisions, viz.: North Holland, South Holland, Zealand, North Brabant, Utrecht, Gelderland, Over-Yssel, Drenthe, Groningen, Friesland, and Limburg. Part of Luxemburg has recently been included; but it only belongs to the king in his capacity of grand duke, as it is properly a part of the German confederacy. The population, with Luxemburg, is 3,206,804.

Chief Towns.—Amsterdam (population 280,000), Rotterdam (80,000), the Hague (66,000), Leyden (35,000), Utrecht (34,000), Haarlem (22,000), Dort, Flushing, Middleburg, Bois-le-Duc, Groningen, Maesbricht, Luxemburg, Schneidam, and other places attest the wealth and industry of the Dutch. Amsterdam is one of the finest cities in Europe; it is built on piles, fortified by a ditch and bastion, intersected by canals, which form 90 islands, connected by 280 stone and wooden bridges. The streets, almost all straight, are built along the canals, are well-paved, have footpaths, and are well-lighted at night. The two finest, called the Heeren-gracht and the Kaiser-gracht, in the middle of the city, are magnificent, and of considerable length, but the houses are all built of brick, and painted of various colors. Amsterdam is the seat of the general administration of the marine, whose vast magazines and ship-building yards are truly remarkable. It contains a great number of scientific and literary institutions. The townhouse, begun in 1648, and finished in eight years, cost $10,000,000. The exchange, India-house, admiralty, state bank, and other buildings, are noble structures.

Productive Resources.—Agriculture, the produce of the dairy, orchards, cattle, fish, gin, tobacco, sugar, &c. The fisheries were formerly of great importance, but were destroyed by the French. Holland is not a manufacturing country. Some linen, cotton, and woollen articles, are made for domestic consumption. Ship and boat building is also a branch of manufacturing industry.

Commerce.—The principal exports are agricultural and dairy produce, salted provisions, madder, tobacco, oil, gin, seeds, hides, &c. The imports are salt, wines, timber, grain, iron, &c. The most valuable trade possessed by Holland is that carried on with Java, Banca, and other colonies. Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and the Hague, are the principal ports for foreign trade.

Education.—Primary schools are established throughout the kingdom.

* The greater number of these canals are appropriated to the drainage of the land many, however, are navigable by large vessels. The principal is the Grand Ship canal of New Holland, between Amsterdam and Niew-Diep, near the Helder. This noble work, the greatest of its kind in Europe, is about 50½ miles long, 125 feet broad at its surface, and 36 at bottom, with a depth of 20 feet 9 inches; it was completed between 1819 and 1825, at an expense of $5,000,000. It has a towing path on each side, and admits of two frigates or merchant vessels of the largest size passing each other.

Scarcely a child of ten years of age can be found who can not read and write. In the superior private schools, German, French, English, and other modern languages, are taught, in addition to the ordinary elementary branches of knowledge. Universities are established at Leyden, Utrecht, and Groningen.

Government.—The government is a constitutional monarchy, with two legislative chambers, the members of one appointed for life by the king, those of the other elected by the people for three years.

Rix Dollar, 93 cents.

History.—The Netherlands were known in the time of Julius Cæsar, by the name of Belgic Gaul, and the chief inhabitants were the Menapii, Tungri, Nervii, and Morini, who were subscquently known as the Belgæ, Batavi, and Frisi. The Batavi appear to have occupied the marshy country bounded by the Rhine and the Maas, or Maese. On the irruption of the Franks, whose ancient kingdom was on the east of the Rhine, into the Gallia Belgica, or country west of the Rhine, the Netherlands, with other districts, became part of the Neustria or New Kingdom, one portion of them being annexed to the province of Flandria, and the other to that of Lotharingia or Lower Lorraine. In the year 843, by the peace of Verdun, Batavia and Friesland were united to Germany. In 860, the emperor Louis II. created the district into an earldom of the German empire; it did not bear the name of Holland until 913. In the tenth century Holland was divided into a number of free towns, with a nominal head over all. In the fifteenth century, the whole of the province had, by conquest, purchase, and inheritance, passed into the possession of the house of Burgundy, and by the marriage of the heiress of Burgundy, the Netherlands were transferred to the Spanish branch of the house of Austria. About the middle of the sixteenth century the Hollanders rebelled against the Spanish yoke; a struggle was commenced which lasted nearly a century, when Spain acknowledged their independence. During this time the commerce of Holland attained an unrivalled magnitude, her colonies and conquests extending over some of the most valuable provinces in the East and West Indies. In 1741 the French captured the southern provinces, and held them till 1748. Austria again lost the Netherlands in 1792, and in 1794 they were again in the hands of the French, and were held by them till the restoration of the Bourbons in France in 1814. At this period Belgium and Holland were united into the kingdom of the Netherlands, and the prince of Orange raised to the crown. In 1830, Belgium, by a revolution, separated itself from Holland, and now, with a large debt, and a revenue unequal to their expenditure, the Dutch with difficulty maintain a position among European nations, and are chiefly enabled to do so by their territories in Java and the Eastern Archipelago.

Rix Dollar, 93 cents.

10 Guilders, $4.

SOVEREIGNS OF HOLLAND.

STADTHOLDERS.			KINGS.
William the Great...1554	Frederick Henry....1625	Charles Henry Frizo.1711	William I.....1813
Henry Philip William1584	William II.....1647	William IV.....1747	William II.....1840
Maurice.....1618	William III 1650	William V.....1751	William III.....1849
	John William Frizo..1702		

GERMANY.

Crown Thaler, $1.02.

The extent of country comprised under the term Germany, has varied in every century since it first became known to the Romans; but our limits preclude our attempting to lay before the reader any account of these variations, or of the growth of that complicated and peculiar system of policy under which the country was placed at a comparatively early period. The states of Germany lie between 45° 30′ and 55° north latitude, and 6° and 19° 20′ east longitude, and are bounded, as near as may be defined, on the north by the Baltic sea, Denmark, and the North sea or German ocean; on the east by Prussia and Austria, on the south by Switzerland, Italy, the Adriatic sea, and Illyria, and on the west by France, Belgium, and Holland.

Physical Aspect.—The surface of Germany is much diversified; but its mountain tracts lie chiefly in the southeast and east, while west and north the land spreads in spacious sandy plains, intersected by the rivers which run in the same direction from the higher lands toward the sea. The mountains, which may be considered as a northern branch of the great Alpine system of Europe, bear no comparison with the Alps in point of height, for the loftiest summits are only 5,000 feet high; but they occupy a great space, and diverge in so many various directions through the country, that it is difficult to trace them without the aid of a map. The Fichtel-gebirge, however, in the northern part of Bavaria, may be considered as the centre and nucleus of the mountains in Central Germany; and from it branch, in four directions, the ranges composing the watershed that divides the rivers of the Black sea from those of the Baltic and German ocean. The soil of Germany is generally productive. The plains of the north, indeed, contain much waste land; but along the rivers there are rich and fertile soils, where the most abundant crops are raised. There is, also, in the mountain country south, much barren land; but the beautiful valleys and small plains along the hills rival the fertility of the best alluvial soils of the north.

Rivers and Lakes.—The rivers of Germany are many and important. The largest is the Danube (1,800 miles long), which rises in the Black Forest, and takes hence a course due east, receiving numerous tributaries, and passes into Hungary at Presburg, near which place it receives the drainage of Moravia through the March. The Drave and Save also rise in Southern Germany; and the Adige, which flows south, has its sources in the Rhœtian Alps. The Elbe rises from numerous affluents on the north side of the Bohemian mountains, and drains the valley of Bohemia. After escaping through the Sudetic mountains, it flows over the plains of Northern Germany to the ocean. The Weser and its large affluents pursue a similar course. The Oder drains the northeast, and reaches the sea in a little stream, twenty miles below Stettin. The Rhine, in the west, rises in Switzerland, and on leaving that territory shoots in a northern direction, receiving in its course the Meyn and the Moselle, and passes into Holland, and ultimately finds the sea through several channels. Besides these magnificent rivers, which of themselves constitute a most extensive water-system, there are many minor ones, and numerous lakes connected with the rivers.

Climate.—The climate of Germany is far less variable than the nature of its mountain-system, and the range of latitudes in which it lies, would lead us to

suppose. The atmosphere in the northern part is humid, arising from oceanic influences; in the central portion it is the most salubrious and agreeable of any in Europe; while in the Alpine regions of the south every variety is found, in accordance with the elevation and protection of the country.

Political Divisions.—The names, extent, population, chief towns, &c., of the states of Germany are as follows:—

STATES.	Square Miles.	Rank.	Population.	Religion.	Chief Towns.	Population.
Austria (German)	81,000	Empire	11,500,000	Catholic	Vienna	350,000
Anhalt-Bernburg	336	Duchy	48,844	Protestant	Bernburg	5,000
Anhalt-Cothen	310	Duchy	43,120	Protestant	Cothen	6,000
Anhalt-Dessau	337	Duchy	63,082	Protestant	Dessau	10,000
Baden	5,712	Grand Duchy	1,349,930	Catholic	Carlsruhe	24,000
Bavaria	28,435	Kingdom	4,504,874	Catholic	Munich	106,000
Bremen*	67	Free City	72,908	Protestant	Bremen	
Brunswick	1,525	Duchy	269,301	Protestant	Brunswick	36,000
Frankfort†	91	Free City	68,240	Protestant	Frankfort	
Hamburg‡	149	Free City	188,054	Protestant	Hamburg	
Hanover	14,600	Kingdom	1,773,711	Protestant	Hanover	28,000
Hesse-Cassel	4,386	Electorate	754,590	Protestant	Cassel	26,000
Hesse-Darmstadt	3,198	Grand Duchy	852,679	Protestant	Darmstadt	22,000
Hesse-Homburg	154	Landgravate	24,433	Protestant	Homburg	3,500
Hohenzollern-Hechingen	136	Principality	20,143	Catholic	Hechingen	3,000
Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen	383	Principality	45,431	Catholic	Sigmaringen	1,400
Lichtenstein	52	Principality	6,351	Catholic	Lichtenstein	600
Lippe-Detmold	432	Principality	108,236	Protestant	Detmold	2,800
Lippe-Schaumburg	205	Principality	31,870	Protestant	Buckeburg	2,100
Lubec‖	142	Free City	47,197	Protestant	Lubec	
Mecklenburg-Schwerin	4,701	Grand Duchy	524,042	Protestant	Schwerin	12,000
Mecklenburg-Strelitz	1,094	Grand Duchy	94,406	Protestant	New Strelitz	6,000
Nassau	1,736	Duchy	424,817	Protestant	Wisbaden	7,000
Oldenburg	2,470	Grand Duchy	278,909	Protestant	Oldenburg	5,564
Prussia (German)	71,000	Kingdom	11,000,000	Protestant	Berlin	335,000
Reuss-Lobenstein	548	Principality	60,000	Protestant	Lobenstein	3,000
Reuss-Greitz	140	Principality	30,000	Protestant	Greitz	7,000
Saxony	5,705	Kingdom	1,836,433	Protestant	Dresden	70,000
Saxe-Altenburg	491	Duchy	129,589	Protestant	Altenburg	12,800
Saxe-Coburg and Gotha	790	Duchy	147,195	Protestant	Gotha	11,000
Saxe-Meiningen-Hildburghausen	880	Duchy	160,515	Protestant	Meiningen	5,000
Saxe-Weimar-Eisenach	1,403	Duchy	257,573	Protestant	Weimar	10,000
Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt	331	Principality	68,711	Protestant	Rudolstadt	4,000
Schwarzburg-Sondershausen	328	Principality	58,682	Protestant	Sondershausen	3,300
Waldeck	455	Principality	58,753	Protestant	Corbach	2,000
Wurtemburg	7,568	Kingdom	1,743,827	Protestant	Stutgard	40,000
	241,200		38,646,446			

* Bremen is situated on both sides of the Weser, about forty miles from its mouth. The larger portion of the city, called the Alstadt or old town, lies on the right, and the Neustadt or new town, on the left bank of the river. The streets in the latter are comparatively straight and broad, but those in the former are mostly narrow and crooked, and the houses being high, they have a gloomy appearance. An island in the river is included within the city: the communication between its two great divisions being kept up by a bridge, which crosses this island. The ramparts by which the town was formerly surrounded have been levelled, planted, and converted into fine gardens and promenades. It has nine churches, of which the cathedral, built in 1160, is the principal: the church of Ausgarius has a spire 325 feet in height. The new townhall, formerly the archi-episcopal palace, is a building of the same elaborate character as the townhalls in Bruges and other cities of the Netherlands. It has a large domestic and foreign trade, and a line of steamers connect it with England and the United States.

† Frankfort-on-the-Meyn is a fine old town on the right bank of the Meyn, twenty miles east of its confluence with the Rhine. It is the capital of the German Confederation, and residence of the vicar or chief executive of the empire. The interior of the city has of late years undergone great improvements: the fortifications have been levelled, and their site converted into promenades. The suburbs are adorned with splendid villas; and the river is lined with capacious open quays, which, in some places, are as highly ornamented as those of the Seine at Paris. Frankfort enjoys considerable trade, and its two annual fairs are much frequented. Water from the mountains is copiously supplied to the city through a subterranean aqueduct.

‡ Hamburg, the greatest commercial city of Germany, and whose trade in fact rivals that of the largest cities of the world, is situated on the north bank of the Elbe, at the point where it receives the Elster, sixty miles from the sea. The city is oval-shaped, is about four miles in circumference, and was formerly fortified; but having suffered severely during its occupation by the French in 1806, its ramparts were subsequently levelled, and converted into public walks. None of the public buildings are remarkable. The Stadt-Haus is a large and heavy structure; and the Borsenhall, bank, and admiralty, though well-suited for their respective purposes, exhibit nothing striking in their architecture. The finest church is that of St. Michael, which has a tower 460 feet high. The river, opposite the city, is divided into several channels, with intervening islands; communication is kept up by steam ferries. The government is vested in a senate of thirty-six members, four of whom are burgomasters, four syndics, one prothonotary, one keeper of the records, and two secretaries, all chosen by the citizens, who are formed for this purpose into five orders or classes. Justice is dispensed by three graduated courts, appeal lying from the lowest to the higher. The revenue is derived from imports, taxes, and a light customs' duty, and amounts annually to about $750,000. The import trade of Hamburg is chiefly carried on by foreign vessels, and from its situation at the mouth of a navigable river of 500 miles, the city enjoys prodigious inland trade, and is necessarily the entrepôt for a great part of Eastern Prussia, Saxony, and other adjacent states. Manufactures of various kinds also employ the citizens. Schools and charitable institutions are well supported. Since the expulsion of the French, in 1814, Hamburg has more than doubled in population, which is now about 150,000. Hamburg owes its independence to the mutual jealousy of its neighbors, the kings of Denmark and Prussia, neither of whom will consent to the other getting so rich a prize, though they both covet it.

‖ Lubec is built upon a hill, at the confluence of the rivers Wakenitz and Trave, to the east of Holstein. It is very much fallen from its ancient importance, but still possesses a considerable transit trade. It was formerly the chief city of the Hanseatic league, and is still the seat of the supreme court of appeals for the four free cities.

Productive Resources.—The vegetation of Germany resembles, in its general character, that of the north of France. The common products of agriculture are yielded in great abundance. In the southern river valleys the vine flourishes, and walnuts, chestnuts, plums, &c., grow abundantly; but the severity of the winter, which sometimes occurs, injures the growth of garden shrubs and flowering plants. The mines produce gold, silver, iron, tin, lead, bismuth, mercury, zinc, &c. The manufactures are various and numerous, every town having its woollen, linen, cotton, silk, and iron workshops; but steam-power or machinery is not employed to any great extent.

Railroads and Canals.—The means of internal communication in Germany, in addition to that afforded by its magnificent rivers, is greatly facilitated by more than 3,000 miles of railway and numerous canals.

Commerce.—The internal commerce of Germany, formerly much embarrassed by the levying of duties in each petty state through which goods passed, has been lately promoted by a commercial league or Zollverein, which subjects them to a single duty. The principal exports are manufactures, and agricultural and mineral products. The imports consist of wines, brandies, and other liquors, fish, cheese, skins, tar, oil, tallow, leather, potash, West India produce, drugs, cotton, silk, &c. The principal maritime towns are, Hamburg, Lubec, Bremen, Emden, &c.

Third Rix Dollar, 30 cents.

History.—Shortly after the dissolution of the Roman empire, Germany was overrun by the Franks, and in 800, Charlemagne was crowned by Pope Leo III. emperor of the Holy Roman Empire of Germany; his vast dominion extending from the Tiber to the Eider, from the Ebro in Spain to the German ocean, and from the Atlantic to the Elbe and the river Raab in Germany. At the beginning of the tenth century, the German princes asserted their independence, rejected the Carlovingian line, and placed Conrad, count of Franconia, on the throne; since which time Germany has remained an elective monarchy. In the thirteenth century arose the factions of the Guelphs and Ghibelines, of which the former were attached to the pope, and the latter to the emperor, and by their continual dissensions disquieted the empire for several ages, which was also frequently embroiled by the quarrels of the German princes concerning the succession. In 1414, the infamous council of Constance was convoked; by whose orders John Huss, in 1415, and Jerome of Prague, in 1416, were burned to death for promulgating the doctrines of Wickliff. The reign of Maximilian I. is famous for the beginning of the Reformation in 1517, which proceeded from the university of Wittemberg in Saxony, where Martin Luther was a professor. The power of the German empire gradually decreased; in the eighteenth century it was little more than nominal, and in 1806 many of the German states united in what was called the Rhenish Confederation under the protection of Napoleon, who declared the German empire at an end. From this Confederation, Bavaria, and the other members, successively withdrew, and joined the alliance against Napoleon. At the termination of the European war in 1814–'15, at the congress of Vienna, the Germanic confederation was formed, June 8th, 1815, with the professed object of securing the independence and inviolability, and of preserving the internal peace of the states. The government of the

Rix Dollar, 93 cents.

VIEW OF HAMBURG, FROM THE ELBE.

confederation consisted of a diet or congress, which met at Frankfort-on-the-Meyn. The whole number of deputies amounted to seventy. The representative of the emperor of Austria presided. Only the German portions of Austria and Prussia belonged to the confederation. The individual states had their own local governments and laws, and only affairs of general interest were under the charge of the Diet. In 1848, the French revolution spread the spirit of revolt into Germany, causing many of the sovereigns to grant charters to their people, or to fly before popular insurrection. The Germanic Confederation was broken up, but, after a time, most of the monarchies were restored to their former position. No general confederation, however, has been established.

EMPERORS OF GERMANY.

Charlemagne	800	Conrad II.	1024	Rodolphus	1273	Maximilian II.	1564
Louis I.	814	Henry III.	1039	Adolphus	1291	Rodolphus II.	1576
Lothario	840	Henry IV.	1055	Albert I.	1298	Matthias I.	1612
Louis II.	855	Rodolphus	1077	Henry VIII.	1308	Ferdinand II.	1619
Charles II.	875	Henry IV.	1080	Louis IV.	1314	Ferdinand III.	1637
Louis III.	878	Henry V.	1105	Charles IV.	1347	Leopold I.	1658
Charles III.	879	Lothario II.	1125	Wenceslaus	1378	Joseph II.	1705
Arnould	887	Conrad III.	1138	Frederick	1399	Charles VI.	1711
Louis IV.	899	Frederick Barbarossa	1152	Robert	1400	Charles VII.	1742
Conrad	912	Henry VI.	1191	Sigismond	1410	Francis I.	1745
Henry I.	919	Philip	1198	Albert II.	1437	Joseph II.	1765
Otho I.	936	Otho V.	1208	Frederick III.	1440	Leopold II.	1790
Otho II.	973	Frederic II.	1211	Maximilian I.	1493	Francis II.	1792
Otho III.	983	Henry VII.	1245	Charles V.	1519	Confed'n of the Rhine	1806
Henry II.	1002	William	1246	Ferdinand I.	1558	Germanic Confeder'n	1815

THE AUSTRIAN EMPIRE.

Austrian Rix Dollar, 93 cents.

The empire of Austria lies between 42° and 55° north latitude, and 8° 30′ and 26° 30′ east longitude, and is bounded on the north by Russia and Prussia, on the east by Russia and the Russo-Turkish provinces of Wallachia and Moldavia, on the south by Turkey, the Adriatic, the duchies of Parma and Modena, and the Papal States, and on the west by Switzerland, Sardinia, and Bavaria. From west to east its greatest extent is about 850 miles; from north to south about 600 miles. Its superficial area is about 255,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The features of the Austrian empire differ from those of Europe in general, by being mountainous rather than level. The scenery is rendered strikingly picturesque by elevated chains of mountains, noble rivers, numerous lakes, and extensive forests, which will be more particularly referred to, under the heads of the various divisions of the empire.

Climate.—The Austrian dominions, from the extensive regions which they include, have necessarily many varieties of climate. The northern countries generally are bleak, and have six months of severe winter, and even during the summer season the temperature is low; in the southern portion the winters are short, aad the climate is generally mild and healthful.

Productive Resources.—The Austrian dominions are rich in their animal, vegetable, and mineral productions. They possess some fine breeds of horses, cattle, sheep, and goats. All kinds of grain, fruit (especially the grape), wood, flax, and tobacco, are extensively cultivated. The mineral resources are abundant (Hungary being specially noted for gold, silver, and copper mines, Illyria

for quicksilver, Styria for iron, and Galicia for salt), and there are numerous manufactories of wool, cotton, flax, silk, and glass.

Commerce.—Austria has few natural facilities for commerce, and trade is mainly carried on by means of fairs, held periodically in the large cities and towns. The annual exports amount to about $100,000,000, and the imports to considerably more. Of the exports, two thirds are received by Southern Germany, Russia, Turkey, Switzerland, and the adjoining countries; and the other third is exported by sea, principally from Trieste, Venice, and Fiume. The contraband trade is very extensive. The shipping numbers about 500 vessels; tonnage, 120,000; crew, 6,000. The military marine is small, but the steam-fleet of the "Austrian Lloyds' Co.," at Trieste, is always at the command of the imperial service.

Education.—Education is extensively diffused throughout all the Austrian states. In the German portion, the schools are more numerous and efficient than in Hungary, and the more remote parts of the empire. In the lowest grade of schools, instruction is confined to reading, writing, and accounts. Above these are the "gymnasia," or high schools, for the classics and mathematics, and commercial academies in the towns; and universities, of which there are nine, viz., at Prague, Vienna, Padua, Pavia, Lemberg, Gratz, Olmutz, Pesth, and Innspruck.

Population.—This extraordinary empire includes many distinct races, differing widely in manners, language, religion, and appearance. Its population is estimated from 30,000,000 to 36,000,000; of whom 4,000,000 are Austrians, and 3,000,000 other Germanic races, all speaking the German language; 15,000,000 are Sclavonic, including 6,600,000 Czechs or Bohemians; 2,300,000 Poles; 2,600,000 Russians; 1,260,000 Wends; 700,000 Croats; 2,000,000 Servians, and 10,000 Balgarians. The Romanic races number nearly 8,000,000, of whom 5,250,000 are Italians, and 2,500,000 Wallachians. Those of Asiatic descent are about 5,600,000, of whom the Magyars (in Hungary) number 4,858,000; the Jews 670,000, and the Armenians 12,000.

Half Rix Dollar, 45 cents.

History.—The foundation of this powerful empire was laid in the time of Charlemagne, in 800, by a body of militia, and denominated the margravate of Austria. In 1156 it was united with the territories above the river Enns, and created a duchy. In 1282 the dynasty of the house of Hapsburg commenced, and the duchy rapidly increased. In 1438 Albert II. succeeded, on the death of his father-in-law, the emperor Sigismund, to the kingdoms of Hungary, and Bohemia, and obtained the electoral crown of Germany. On his death the countries were again separated. In 1453 Austria was raised to the rank of an archduchy. In 1526, Louis, king of Bohemia and Hungary, was slain at the battle of Mohatz, and his dominions, including Moravia and Silesia, were reunited with Austria, which then retained the position of a European monarchy. In 1740, the male line of the house of Hapsburg terminated by the death of the emperor Charles VI. But his daughter, Maria Theresa, married to Francis of Lorrain, grand duke of Tuscany, succeeded to his dominions, and, eventually, to the imperial crown. Shortly after her accession, Frederick the Great, king of Prussia, seized upon the greater part of Silesia. The recovery of this province was the principal object of Austria and her allies in the seven years' war. But Prussia finally triumphed, and Silesia was ceded to Prussia, by the treaty of Hubertsburg, in 1763. In the first division of Poland, in 1772, Austria acquired Galicia, and captured Bukovina in 1777. In 1804, Francis II., the reigning monarch, united all his states under the

name of the empire of Austria, and declared himself the hereditary emperor. In 1814 and 1815, Austria obtained the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, and recovered Dalmatia, and other changes were made in the boundaries of the empire. Ferdinand I. succeeded his father Francis in 1835, but being incapacitated for his high duties by mental and bodily weakness, the government was managed by a council until early in 1848, when the revolutionary movements compelled the members, of which Prince Clement von Metternich-Winneburg was the most able, to abdicate, and the governmental functions fell to the lot of a popular ministry. In April, the emperor and his ministers promulgated a constitution. The turbulence of faction increased, and the country became a scene of anarchy and disorganization, nation fighting against nation, and race against race. Cities were burnt and pillaged, and ultimately the emperor was obliged to fly from the capital and take refuge in his Sclavonic dominions. Finding himself powerless, and unable longer to cope with the disturbed state of matters, he finally abdicated his throne in favor of his nephew, Joseph Francis, son of the archduke Francis Charles, on the 2d of December, 1848. On ascending the throne the young emperor promised, in the most solemn manner, to give freedom and a constitutional government to his country. But his first act was to close the national representative assembly; the second, to cancel the ancient constitution of Hungary, and promulgate a charter which has never been so much as attempted to be realized, and which was withdrawn in 1851. By the aid of the emperor of Russia, and the treachery of Görgey, he succeeded in overwhelming the resistance of the Hungarian nation, while Radetsky secured the submission of the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom. Having in this manner gained internal peace and freedom of government and legislative action, he promulgated the notorious edicts of Schonbrunn, September 26, 1851, in which he declared his ministers "responsible to no other political authority besides the throne;" and he has since exercised autocratical sway, without a parliament or so much as a constitutional council to stand by his side.

Political Divisions.—This strange aggregate of nations consists, according to a recent proclamation by the emperor, Francis Joseph, of the following countries:—"The archduchy of Austria, on either bank of the Enns; the duchies of Salzburgh and Styria; the kingdom of Illyria (consisting of the duchy of Carinthia and Krain, the princely countries of Goez and Gradiska, the margravate of Istria, and the city of Trieste, with the territories thereunto appertaining); the princely county of Tyrol and Voralberg; the kingdom of Bohemia; the margravate of Moravia; the duchies of Upper and Lower Silesia; the kingdom of Galicia and Lodomeria, with the duchies of Auschwitz and Zator, and the grand duchy of Cracow; the duchy of Bukovina; the kingdoms of Dalmatia, Croatia, and Sclavonia, with the territories of the Croatian coast; the city of Fiume, with the territories thereunto appertaining; the kingdom of Hungary; the grand duchy of Transylvania, inclusive of the Saxish country, and the counties of Kraszna, Middle Szolnok, and Zarand; the districts of Kovar and the city of Zilah; the territories of the military border, and the kingdoms of Lombardy and Venice." German geographers divide the countries which compose the Austrian empire into four grand divisions: German, Polish, Italian, and Hungarian provinces. The German provinces comprise the archduchy of Austria, Salzburgh and Styria (Steyermark), Illyria, Tyrol, Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia: the Polish comprise the kingdom of Galicia: the Hungarian comprise the kingdom of Hungary, including Sclavonia, and Croatia, the principality of Transylvania, the Military Frontier, and the kingdom of Dalmatia: and the Italian, the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom.*

* This division of the Austrian empire will be noticed in its proper geographical position, under the head of Italy.

THE GERMANIC-AUSTRIAN STATES.

Archduchy of Austria.—The archduchy of Austria, wherein is situated Vienna,* the capital of the empire, is divided by the river Enns into Upper and Lower Austria. From a ridge of hills on the north, and a branch of the Noric Alps which separate it from Styria on the south, the country curves downward, forming a deep valley, through which flows the mighty Danube, receiving in its course the streams which intersect the banks on either side. This district is the seat of extensive manufactures. In the mountainous parts of the province are mines of iron, coal, and rock-salt. In the fertile valley of the Enns the grains are raised in abundance, and in the warmer situations the vine is extensively cultivated. The mountain-sides are covered with forests, and lumber is an important productive resource.

Salzburgh and Styria.—Salzburgh is a mountainous country, possessed of valuable copper, silver, and iron mines. It was formerly a duchy of Germany, but was recently exchanged by the king of Bavaria, with the emperor of Austria, for the palatinate on the west side of the Rhine. Styria contains a ridge of mountains called the Styrian Alps, of stupendous height, which have been thought to surpass in grandeur even those of Switzerland. The hills, covered with forests, are used for pasturage, while in the lowlands, every variety of grain is cultivated. Coal, salt, and iron, are abundant. Its principal rivers are the Mur and the Enns. Grätz, a town of 50,000 inhabitants, and one of the largest trading cities in the empire, is the capital.

Illyria.—Illyria is intersected by several chains of mountains, of which the most remarkable are the Noric, Carnian, and Julian Alps. The southern and eastern portions, viz., Carniola and Istria, contain an extraordinary assemblage of grottoes, subterranean rivers, and other curious phenomena; among others, the far-famed lake of Czirknitz. The principal rivers are the Save, Laibach, and the Gurck. The city of Trieste, situated on the gulf to which it gives name, is the principal seaport of the Austrian empire. Its annual imports amount to about $40,000,000; and its exports to about $30,000,000. The population of Trieste is about 80,000.

Tyrol and Voralberg.—The scenery of the Tyrol is unsurpassed in grandeur and romantic beauty by that of any other European country. The valleys are fertile in corn and wine, and the Tyrolese have the character of being a hardy and industrious race. The Voralberg forms the northwestern division of the regions generally understood to be included in the Tyrol; the Brixen, the northeastern division; the bishopric of Trent, the southern division; while Tyrol proper forms the centre. The country is named from a castle

* VIENNA, stands in a fertile plain on the right bank of the Danube, in 48° 12′ 36″ north latitude, and 16° 16′ 42″ east longitude. On the south and west it is bordered by a range of thickly-wooded and vine-clad hills. In Vienna the commercial activity of London, and the brilliant gayety of Paris, seem blended with the picturesque luxuriance of an eastern city; and the splendid equipages, showily painted shop-fronts, and striking varieties of costume, add to the brilliancy of the scene; while the latter speaks unmistakeably of the many different nations of which Vienna is the capital. Vienna proper is only four miles in extent, but it includes many fine buildings, and its streets, though narrow, are well built. It contains about fifty churches, some of them remarkable for architectural beauty. The cathedral of St Stephen, founded by Henry I., is a noble Gothic structure. Vienna is celebrated for its collections of sculpture, statuary, pictures, engravings, books, rare manuscripts, subjects relating to natural history, and indeed to every branch of the arts and sciences. Vienna has been the scene of many historical events. In 1271 it was taken by the emperor Frederick II., and again by Rudolph I. in 1297. It was vainly besieged by the Hungarians in 1477, but was obliged to surrender eight years after to Matthias, king of Hungary and Bohemia. In 1683 it was again besieged and closely invested by the Turks under Kara Mustapha, and relieved at last only by the arrival of a Polish army under John Sobieski, who defeated the Turks with great slaughter under the very walls of the city. The head of Mustapha is still exhibited to visiters at the arsenal. In 1805 it surrendered to Napoleon, and again in 1809, after a short resistance. In 1848 it became the scene of domestic rebellion, and suffered from the lawless conduct of the rebels. Six miles east of the city is the island of Lobau, in the Danube, where the French were encamped for six weeks; and opposite to it, near the north bank of the river, are the villages of Aspern, Essling, and Wagram, where the desperate battles were fought which decided at that time the fate of the Austrian empire. Population, including the suburbs, about 370,000.

called the "Tyrol," on a mountain near Merau. The principal chain of mountains is the Brenner, which includes numerous glaciers. This chain stretches from the Valteline on the southwest to the duchy of Salzburgh on the northeast, and its breadth between Trent and Innspruck, the capital city, is seventy miles. The chief rivers are the Inn, Adige, and Eysach. Waterfalls are numerous, and serve as motive-power to machinery. Minerals are abundant, but not sought for; and spinning, knitting, and weaving, are the only species of manufacture known. The Tyrolese are great sportsmen, and despise the restraints of civilized life. They have ever been good soldiers, and faithful adherents to the imperial house. Their language is German. Innspruck, the capital, lies in a valley on the banks of the Inn, surrounded by snow-clad mountains. The town contains many fine buildings and ancient relics. Its university and museum are respectable. Population, 11,000. The other towns of Tyrol are Hall, noted for its salt-works, mint, and gymnasium; and Schwaz, for its silver and copper mines. Trent, on the Adige, is famous in church history.

Bohemia.—The kingdom of Bohemia has for its centre an extensive plain, elevated above the level of the sea, and surrounded on all sides by high mountains. Its area is about 20,000 square miles. It possesses great mineral wealth, a salubrious climate, and a very fertile soil. The chief products are, wheat, barley, oats, rye, potatoes, hemp, flax, hops, and vines. It has extensive forests, from which large quantities of timber are deported on the Elbe and the Moldau, its principal rivers. Its manufactures, consisting principally of woollens, linens, and leather, are prosperous. Its capital, the fine old city of Prague, stands in 50° 6′ north latitude, and 14° 24′ east longitude, and possesses a noble cathedral, one of the finest bridges in Europe, and a famous university, to which belonged the celebrated John Huss. Its population is about 140,000. Other principal towns are Carlsbad, Reichenberg, Frautenau, Landskron, Kuttenberg, Budweis, Krumau, Toplitz, &c.

Moravia and Silesia.—The margravate or Moravia is environed by mountains and woods, which occupy about half the country; the remaining part has large bogs, lakes, and morasses. Silesia is situated to the northeast of Moravia, between Bohemia and Hungary, and has an area of 10,000 square miles. Most of the country is covered with mountains, enclosing fruitful valleys. It is a prolific agricultural country, and supports a dense population. Manufactures are extensively carried on, and with the exception of the Vienna districts, no part of the empire contributes more to its commercial prosperity. Moravia and Silesia form one government, which is divided into eight circles, viz.: Brunn, Iglan, Znaym, Hradisch, Olmutz, and Prerau, in Moravia, and Troppau and Teschen, in Silesia. Brunn, the capital, seventy miles north of Vienna, may be regarded as the chief woollen mart of the empire. Its population is about 50,000. Silk, cotton, soap, and tobacco, are largely manufactured, and at a village, about a mile from the city, there is also a large manufactory of porcelain. About fourteen miles to the eastward is the town of Austerlitz, which derives its celebrity from the great battle in which Napoleon defeated the Austro-Russian army in December, 1805. Olmutz, formerly the capital, is a fortified city of considerable importance, and has many public institutions of great value. Population, 20,000. This was a city of refuge to the emperor during the disturbances at Vienna in 1848. There are a number of other towns in Moravia, with populations varying from 15,000 downward. In Silesia is Troppau, noted for its cloths and arms, and for the fine palace of the prince of Lichtenstein. Population, 13,000. Teschen is a small, but flourishing commercial town, of 8,000 inhabitants.

THE HUNGARIAN STATES.

Hungary.—The kingdom of Hungary is encompassed on the north and west by chains of mountains. An immense plain, comprehending all Eastern Hungary, lies between the Danube and the Transylvania mountains. Several branches of the Carpathians and of the Julian Alps pervade the north and west. The highest peaks of the Carpathians are from 5,000 to 8,500 feet. From the valley of the Danube to their summits there are five successive belts. 1st. Plains rich in corn, vine, and fruit-trees, which extend to the first hills, or about 1,500 feet above the sea. 2d. A woody region, with oak, beech, and chestnut, terminating at 4,000 feet. 3d. A sub-Alpine district, with the Scotch or *pinus abies* fir, extending to about 5,000 feet. 4th. A lower Alpine region, stony, with the gloomy and useless moss-pine, 6,000 feet. 5th. The superior Alpine, which is barren, dreary, devoid of large vegetation, and with here and there, among the rocks, dwarf plants, and dark lichens.

Rivers and Lakes.—The principal rivers of Hungary are, the Leitha, Raab, Waag or Vag, Grau, Drave, Save, and Theiss or Tisza; most of these streams are tributaries of the great Danube. The Theiss is the largest, and has a winding course of 450 miles; the banks are boggy for miles on either side. Lakes are numerous. The Plattensee or Balaton, near the centre of Hungary, is forty-five miles long by eight broad, and surrounded by rich pasture-lands; the Neusiadlersee, on the frontier of Lower Austria, is a salt-water lake, covering an area of sixty square miles, and surrounded by fens. Mineral springs are numerous.

Climate.—The climate varies much with the locality. The low country is unhealthy to foreigners; but in the middle regions, and on the Carpathian terraces, the air is pure and mild. The mean temperature of Buda, which represents the mean climate of Hungary, is 55° Fahrenheit. The summer and autumn, in the low lands, are usually seasons of drought.

Productive Resources.—Corn, oil, wine, honey, flax, fish, fruit, timber, leather, coal, salt, sulphur, marble, and naphtha. The mouse-colored horses are much esteemed; also a remarkable breed of large rams. Black cattle and hogs are extensively exported. The quantity of Tokay wine annually made is about 1,500,000 gallons; some of this wine is kept for a century, and then sells at the rate of $20 a bottle. There are several other descriptions of good wine produced; about 1,000,000 acres are under the vine, and about 500,000,000 quarts made yearly. Gold, silver, and copper mines have been worked for 1,000 years; the Hungarian opal is highly esteemed by eastern nations.

Commerce.—The commerce is small, owing to bad roads, onerous imposts, and vexatious fiscal regulations, supported by numerous customhouses. There are four great annual fairs held at Pesth, which is the centre of trade.

Chief Towns.—Buda (called by the Germans Ofen), and Pesth, opposite each other on the banks of the Danube, form the capital. These two cities are connected by a bridge of boats across the river. The population of both towns is about 130,000. Pesth is the centre of the inland trade of Hungary. Presburg, formerly the capital of Hungary, is situated on the left bank of the Danube, and has about 40,000 inhabitants. Debreczin (45,000 inhabitants), Raab (20,000), Eszek (10,000), Agram (17,000), and Fiume, on the gulf of Guarneso, and the capital of the Hungarian littoral, are other principal towns of Hungary.

Population.—Hungary, with Croatia (civil) and Sclavonia, viz.: Magyars, 4,281,000; Slowacks, 2,220,000; Russines, 350,000; Servians, 740,000; Bulgarians, 10,000; Croats, 660,000; Wends, 50,000; Germans, 986,000; Wallachians, 930,000; Greeks, 10,000; Armenians, 2,500: Jews, 250,000; Gipsies, 30,000; total, 10,500,000.

20 Kreutzers, 15 cents.

History.—This region was anciently inhabited by aboriginal races termed the Scordisci and Taurisci. They were conquered by the Romans, who gave to their territory the name of Pannonia. In the year 377, the Huns invaded this portion of the Roman empire, and in 489 were overthrown by the Goths and Gepidæ, who, in 526, yielded to the Longobards. About the end of the ninth century a Caucasian tribe, numbering one million, divided into seven confederacies, advanced from the Lower Ukraine over the Crapacks or Carpathians, into Pannonia. This tribe, who called themselves Magyars, and were termed *Hun*-garians by the Slavonians, under their chief, Arpad, subdued the country. In 973, some thousands of the Magyars and their duke Geysa embraced Christianity. Geysa's son, St. Stephen, had the hereditary royal dignity conferred on him, in the year 1000, by Otto III. He divided the country into seventy-two counties, and placed over each a comes, count, or graf, who was invested with the civil and military command. He also founded ten bishoprics, and organized a kind of national representation. The German emperors strove to make Hungary a fief of their empire, but its people maintained, with a brief interval (from 1044 to 1063), their independence, and became celebrated for their conquests, liberty, and prosperity, until the turbulent conduct of the magnats, or higher nobility, enabled the Turks, in 1526, to devastate Servia and Hungary as far as the Raab; and the best part of the kingdom remained in their possession, until by the peace of Carlowitz, in 1699, the kingdom of Hungary was attached as a fief to the Austrian empire. In 1848–'49, the Magyars declared Hungary to be separated from the crown of Austria, and a sanguinary civil war ensued, which was terminated by the intervention of Russia with an army of 200,000 men, who united with the Austrian forces, and after several severe conflicts, the Hungarians were finally defeated through the treachery of General Görgey, and Hungary again reduced to the condition of a vassal province of Austria. Kossuth, the provisional governor of Hungary, escaped into Turkey, where he was detained until the autumn of 1851, when he was released by the intercession of the American and English governments. He afterward visited England and the United States, where he was received with the most flattering testimonials of esteem and respect.

Transylvania.—Transylvania, conquered by Stephen, king of Hungary, in 1004, comprehends part of ancient Dacia, and obtains its name from its lying beyond the forests of the Carpathian mountains, which separate it from Hungary on the west and north. It lies between 45° 25′ and 48° north latitude, and contains about 18,000 square miles. It is surrounded by lofty mountains, and intersected by elevated ridges, among which are many delightful valleys and extensive forests. Population, Daco-Roman, Magyar, and Saxon. The Saxon villages are mostly built on eminences with walls; towers and circumvallated churches still standing as in the middle ages, and strong enough to enable a battalion of infantry to hold its ground against a superior force. The Banat, or duchy of Temesvar, to the southwest of Transylvania, is the richest district of the Hungarian provinces. It is nearly square, has the river Manos on the north, the Carpathians on the east, the Theiss on the west, and the Danube on the south. During the recent insurrection, Temesvar withstood a siege of 107 days from the Magyar forces. The gold mines of Transylvania, and of the Banat, are very valuable. Population, 2,118,578.

The Military Frontier.—These territories form an unbroken chain along the Turkish frontier, extending from the Bukovina on the east to the shores of the Adriatic on the west. They present similar physical features to the regions along which they border. It is a military colony, and governed by military

officers. The inhabitants, instead of paying taxes, are obliged to do service in the field. Peterwaradein, the capital, is a strong fortress, built on an isolated hill, on the south bank of the Danube. It communicates with Neusatz, on the opposite bank, by a bridge of boats, and both towns together contain 20,000 inhabitants. The entire population of the Military Frontier is 1,235,466.

Dalmatia.—The kingdom of Dalmatia consists of a long, narrow tract of mountainous country, and an archipelago of large islands along the northeastern coast of the Adriatic sea. The interior of the country consists of mountains and valleys, and the land on the coast is rocky and barren. The country is rich in iron mines and marble quarries. No part of Europe abounds in better harbors. Zara is the capital of Dalmatia; it is important for its industry, commerce, and harbor. Other towns are Spalatro, Ragusa, and Cattaro. Dalmatia formed, from the commencement of the twelfth century down to 1419, a portion of the kingdom of Hungary. It then passed under the sway of the Venetians. During the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries this country was the seat of constant warfare between the Turks and Venetians, until it was finally conquered by the former, who held it till 1797, when it was ceded to Austria. In 1805, Austria gave Dalmatia to the French, who incorporated it into the kingdom of Italy. Napoleon made it a duchy, and conferred the title of duke of Dalmatia on Marshal Soult. On the downfall of Napoleon it reverted to Austria.

AUSTRIAN POLAND.

Quadruple Ducat, $8.80.

Galicia and Lodomeria.—This province is composed of the ancient Polish principalities of Halicz (Galicia), and Wladimir (Lodomeria), and includes also all the territories of Poland which fell to Austria in the various partitions of that country, and the Bukovina, ceded by the Turks, in 1774. Galicia lies on the north of the Carpathian mountains, by which it is separated from Hungary. The country is mountainous in the south, hilly in the centre, and in the north, and most extensive portion, a continuous plain. The forests are extensive, and much infested with wolves and bears. The country is drained by the Dniester, the Pruth, and the San, and the Vistula bounds it on the northwest. Galicia abounds with small lakes, some of which are most picturesquely situated in rocky elevations, furnishing water to fine cascades. The climate is temperate, and even warm. The chief products are grain and wine. Agriculture and the mechanic arts are in a backward state. The chief city is Lemberg, a well-built place, of 60,000 inhabitants.

Soverain, $6.50.

Cracow.—The territory of the late republic of Cracow comprises about 500 square miles, and contains about 120,000 inhabitants. It was seized by Austria in 1846, and incorporated as a part of the dominions of the Austrian empire. The city of Cracow, formerly the capital of Poland, stands in a beautiful valley, on the left bank of the Vistula, in latitude 50° 4′ north, and longitude 20° east. It has a number of fine buildings, but the streets are narrow, irregular, and ill-paved. Its cathedral, regarded as the finest and most interesting church of Poland, contains the tombs of the kings and illustrious men of Poland; among which are the tombs of Casimir the Great; of John Sobeiski, the deliverer of Vienna; and of "the last of the Poles," Thaddeus Kosciusko, and Joseph Poniatowski.

PRUSSIA.

2 Thalers, $1.32.

Prussia, so called from the Pruzzi, a Slavonic tribe who settled on the shores of the Baltic, is separated by Hanover and other states into two parts, Eastern and Western; the territory eastward of Hanover being termed the Rhinish provinces, which are bounded on the north by Hanover, on the west by Holland and Belgium, on the south by France and Bavaria, on the east by Nassau, Hesse-Cassel, Brunswick, and Hanover The other connected and more extensive portion of the kingdom is bounded on the north by the Baltic sea, northeast by Russia, east by Poland, south by Austria, Saxony, and Gotha, west by the above-mentioned states which separate the Rhinish provinces, and on the northwest by Hanover and Mecklenburg-Schwerin. This division is 550 miles long, from southwest to northeast, and 400 miles in breadth from Memel; 55° 46′ north latitude to the south frontier of Prussian Silesia, in 40° 45′ north latitude. The Rhinish provinces extend on each side of the Rhine, and are about 200 miles long by 600 broad. Some small detached districts in Saxony belong to Prussia. The canton Neufchatel, in Switzerland, is nominally under the sovereignty of the king of Prussia, but it is united with the Swiss confederacy, and has its own representative assembly, to whose laws the Prussian monarch is bound by oath to conform.

Physical Aspect.—East and West Prussia, Pomerania, Posen, and part of Silesia, form parts of a great plain with few eminences; the whole eastern country declining toward the Baltic, and the western territories toward the North sea. The finest districts are those bordering on the Rhine. The region around Magdeburg, on the Elbe, is called the garden of Berlin. The southwest side of Silesia is mountainous; the Schneeberg ridge is 4,724 feet high.

Bays, Lakes, Rivers, and Canals.—The Baltic for 500 miles constitutes the northern boundary of Prussia, and has several good harbors, formed by the communication of haffs, or inland lakes, with the bays. Memel, Königsberg, Dantzic, and Swinemunde, are secure havens. The inland lakes are numerous; East Prussia has about 300, West Prussia, 100, and Brandenburg nearly 700. The rivers which run through Prussia, from the highlands of Central Europe to the North sea and the Baltic, form so many valuable outlets of commerce. The Niemen, the Vistula, and the Oder, the latter of which is wholly within Prussia, are the largest and most important. The Elbe and the Rhine also pass through Prussia, but debouch from other states. In many parts the rivers have been joined together by canals, so as to furnish a more complete means of transportation from place to place, and a more direct communication with the ocean. The canal of Plauen, joining the Elbe with the Oder, between Berlin and Magdeburg, is twenty miles long. There are canals between the rivers Spree and Oder, between the Oder and Havel, and between the Vistula and Notez or Netze, twenty miles in length, the whole forming an inland navigation of 700 miles in length.

Islands.—The island of Rugen, in the Baltic, area 370 square miles, has two towns, two boroughs, sixty-three villages, and 36,000 inhabitants. Bergen, the chief town, has a population of 2,200. The form is very singular, and on the northeast is a celebrated precipitous chalk rock called the Stubbenhammer,

563 feet in height. Bornholm, another island in the Baltic, also belongs to Prussia.

Climate.—The climate is generally temperate and healthy, but varies greatly with locality. On the borders of the Baltic, and in Ducal Prussia especially, the winters are severely cold, and the weather raw and damp. The interior is milder, and less variable, and fine and temperate in the Rhinish provinces.

Political Divisions.—The following political divisions of Prussia, with their respective areas and populations, are taken from Martin, and though the last differ somewhat in their aggregates, from the figures given on a previous page, they are probably sufficiently correct in detail for comparison.

DIVISIONS.	Area in square miles.	Population.	Chief Cities.	Population.
Prussia, Eastern	15,115	1,500,000	Konigsberg	72,400
Prussia, Western	9,761	800,000	Dantzic	65,000
Posen	11,568	1,250,000	Posen	32,000
Pomerania	12,341	1,200,000	Stettin	42,000
Brandenburg	15,795	2,000,000	Berlin	400,000
Silesia	15,931	3,000,000	Breslau	80,000
Prussian Saxony	9,890	1,300,000	Magdeburg	54,500
Rhinish Prussia:—				
Westphalia	8,074	1,600,000	Munster	23,900
Kleveberg	3,450	1,000,000	Cologne	78,500
Lower Rhine	7,020	1,300,000	Coblentz	16,000
Neufchatel Canton	286	70,000	Neufchatel	8,000
Total	109,231	15,020,000		

More than two thirds of the population are Germans, and, with the exception of Posen, where the Jews are numerous, predominate in each province. The Walloons, in the neighborhood of the Ardennes, are a mixture of Germans and French. The Sclavonians are about 1,600,000, and the Jews 150,000.

Chief Cities.—Berlin, the capital, in latitude 52° 31′ north, and longitude 13° 23′ east, is a straggling city on the river Spree, composed of five towns or divisions, and was built by a colony from the Netherlands in 1152, under Albert the Bear; it is now twelve miles in circumference, and is defended by a wall and palisades, and entered by fifteen gates; the principal or Brandenburg gate fronts the royal street, and is protected by a half-moon battery and two bastions. The view of the palace from the stone bridge over the Spree is very fine; on it is an excellent statue of William the great Elector. The royal palace is one of the richest dwellings in Europe. The arsenal, opera-house, museum, academy, "charity," and other public buildings, are on a noble scale. The Dorotheanstadt or new town is inhabited chiefly by French. Berlin is surrounded by gardens and fields, and there are numerous avenues and gardens within the city, which in summer give it a gay appearance. Potsdam, twenty miles from Berlin, is the most elegant city in Prussia, situated on an island seventeen miles in circumference, and containing 30,000 inhabitants. The Sans Souci palace, built by Frederick the Great, is but one story high, and of great magnificence. Frankfort, on the Oder, is an active commercial city, with 20,000 inhabitants. Magdeburg, on the Elbe, one of the strongest fortresses in Europe, is built on a plain, and contains 54,500 inhabitants, who carry on a large commerce. Munster, chief town of Westphalia, contains several manufactories, and an excellent university. Dusseldorf, population 30,000, is beautifully situated at the confluence of the Dussel with the Rhine; it has many manufactories, and the province of which it is the capital is famed for its iron manufactures. Cologne is a fine old city, built by Agrippina, the wife of the emperor Claudius; the cathedral is a noble Gothic structure; several millions bottles of eau de Cologne are annually exported. Aix la Chapelle, population 35,000, is picturesquely situated in a charming valley, and famed for its mineral hot baths. Coblentz, a pleasing city at the junction of the Rhine and Moselle opposite the strong fortress of Ehrenbreitstein, which stands on the right bank of the Rhine. Königsberg, capital of East Prussia, is a handsome city, surrounded by a rampart seven miles in circumference. The palace, exchange,

cathedral, and townhouse, are noble edifices. The cathedral organ has 5,000 pipes. DANTZIC, in lat 54° 21′ north, is a strong fortification, as well as a commercial city, and the emporium of the trade of Poland. The public edifices are magnificent. The cathedral has 48 altars and 3,722 windows. The grain warehouses are of great extent, and are capable of containing about 5,000,000 bushels of wheat. POSEN, on the river Warta, the capital of the province of the same name, is favorably situated for commerce. The Jews are very numerous in this district. BRESLAU, the capital of Silesia, is the centre of Silesian commerce. There is a fine university, library, and museum. MARIENWERDER, chief town in the district of the same name, on the Vistula, was the seat of the Teutonic order, whose ruined Gothic castle still exists. ELBING, a place of considerable trade, contains 20,000 inhabitants. GRAUDENZ is a strong fortress on the Vistula, as is also the frontier town of Thorn.

PRODUCTIVE RESOURCES.—Grain, wool, cattle, horses, sheep, tallow, hides, flax, timber, salt, iron, zinc, copper, lead, silver, alum, amber, smalts, vitriol, arsenic, coal, eau de Cologne, spirits, and various manufactures of linen, woollens, cotton, silk, leather, iron, and china; for the two latter-named Berlin is deservedly famed, and Aix la Chapelle for its woollen goods, while Elberfeldt, on the Rhine, is denominated the Manchester of Germany.

COMMERCE.—Commerce is active, especially the inland trade, which is favored by the extensive inland navigation, and numerous railroads. The linen made in Silesia is valued at $7,500,000 a year; the wool produced and wrought is about 35,000,000 pounds. There are about 160 cotton spinning establishments. The Berlin china is considered the finest in Europe. Iron is produced to the value of $5,000,000 a year, and other metals and semi-metals in proportion. Ten millions tons of coal are annually mined. The sea navigation employs about a thousand vessels. On the river Oder there are 1,400 large and small vessals; on the Vistula, 800; on the Elbe, 400; and on the Rhine, 300 traffic vessels.

EDUCATION.—There are six universities in Prussia, besides numerous gymnasia or preparatory schools, and schools in every village. Education has been made universal by the government, $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the state revenues being devoted to this purpose.

GOVERNMENT.—The government of Prussia is an hereditary monarchy, with a constitutional assembly, as provided by the constitution of 1848, and modified in 1851.

1-6 Thaler, 10 cents.

HISTORY.—The Pruzzi or Sclavonic savages, who migrated to and colonized the northeast portions of this monarchy, afford a remarkable illustration of the past condition of Europe. These barbarians are represented as having no other habitations than caves, or holes dug in the earth; their only weapons wooden spears; their food raw flesh; the drink at their feasts the blood of horses, and their sacrifices the prisoners taken in war; they had no government, might was right; the number of wives limited only by the power of maintenance; the sick, when considered past recovery, were massacred, and they were the terror of neighboring nations. The Sudini or Sudavians, a Sarmatian tribe, introduced among the Pruzzi a form of religion; snake-worship, as still practised in Africa, was introduced, and serpents were fed and kept in caverns as protecting deities. The oak was made an object of veneration, and idolatrous orgies were performed beneath its shade. Civilization gradually advanced—villages and towns arose—a form of government was established; and in the twelfth century Bolislaus, king of Poland, ineffectually endeavored to subdue the Pruzzi, and convert them to Christianity. After an exterminating war of fifty years the Teutonic order of knights, aided by the Poles, subdued the Pruzzi, and established Christianity.

Florin, 44 cents.

Albert of Brandenburg, grand master of the order, obtained from his maternal uncle, Sigismund of Poland, the hereditary investiture of all the possessions of the Teutonic knights in Prussia; the title of grand master subsequently merged into that of elector of Brandenberg, and the successive sovereigns under this designation added to their dominions. By the peace of Westphalia, the elector Frederick William obtained Pomerania and the secularized bishoprics of Magdeburg and Halberstadt. Frederick III., by a treaty with Austria, Nov. 16, 1700, declared, on the 18th Jan., 1701, that the duchy of Prussia was raised to the rank of a kingdom, and he placed the crown on his own head at Konigsberg. His son, Frederick William I., laid the foundation of the mighty power of Prussia, and left a disciplined army of 70,000 men, and $35,000,000 treasure to his son Frederick the Great, who, during a reign of forty-six years, from 1740 to 1786, by great talents and politic, but unscrupulous measures, aided by the civilizing influence of his mother (Sophia Dorothea, sister of George II. of England), raised Prussia to its present position among the states of Europe; augmented the number of his subjects from two to six millions; and notwithstanding incessant warfare and severe reverses, bequeathed a treasury of $65,000,000, a prosperous kingdom, and a popular sovereignty to his successor and nephew, Frederick William II., in whose reign the second and third partitions of Poland took place, by which, as also by the first partition under Frederick the Great, Prussia obtained a considerable addition of territory. Frederick William III., after severe sufferings during the French revolutionary war, and alternate treaties with and against Napoleon, finally co-operated with England and Russia, furnishing 250,000 troops against France, and contributed to gain the decisive victory of Waterloo. By the peace of Paris, and Congress of Vienna, Prussia obtained considerable accessions of territory, as well as restoration of that previously lost by the peace of Tilsit. The present sovereign of Prussia, Frederick William IV., ascended the throne in 1840. An extensive revolution was begun in 1847, and serious conflicts occurred between the people and the soldiers, which were suspended by the king yielding a liberal constitution; this, however, he has since modified, and revoked most of the privileges then granted.

ELECTORS OF BRANDENBURG.

Frederick of Nuremb'g1416	Joachim II.....1535	Frederick William...1640	Frederick William I.1713
Frederick II.....1440	John George.....1571	Frederick III.....1688	Frederick the Great..1740
Albert I.....1470	Joachim Frederick...1598	[made king of Prussia.]	Frederick William II.1786
John.....1476	John Sigismund.....1608	KINGS.	Frederick William III.1797
Joachim I.....1499	George William.....1619	Frederick I.....1701	Frederick William IV.1840

Thaler, 66 cents.

Thaler, 66 cents.

Thaler, 66 cents.

DENMARK.

Thaler, 66 cents.

This ancient kingdom, which formed part of Scandinavia, now consists of the Danish islands in the Baltic, the peninsula of Jutland or Denmark proper, and, since the dissolution of the Germanic empire, the duchies of Schleswig, Holstein, and Lauenberg; and also of the island of Iceland,* and the Feroe islands. Denmark is divided on the north from Norway by the Skager-rack sea, on the east from Sweden by the Cattegat and the Sound, on the south by Germany and the Baltic, and on the west by the North sea or German ocean, which separates it from Britain. The northern point of Jutland is in 57° 42′ 24″, and of the southern point, of Lauenberg, in latitude 53° 21′ 5″. The meridian is from 8° to 12° east longitude. The superficial area is 21,856 square miles. Population, 2,243,136.

Physical Aspect.—Denmark is a great plain; the few eminences by which it is marked, especially in parts of Schleswig and Holstein, are little more than undulations, the highest only 1,200 feet above the sea. A low sandy ridge stretches from the Skawe (the extreme northern point of Jutland), directly south to the river Elbe. The coast on the German ocean is low, sandy, and much indented by bays or friths; on the shores of the Baltic the land is more elevated and fertile. Zealand, Funen, and other islands in the Baltic, are flat, well cultivated, and productive. The northern part of Jutland is bleak and barren.

Rivers, Lakes, &c.—Denmark having no mountains, and every part of it being within a short distance from the sea, has no rivers of any magnitude. The largest is the Eyder, and next to it the Guden, Trave, &c. The Elbe runs for a considerable distance along the southern frontier of the kingdom. Fresh-water lakes are numerous, but not large. The most remarkable feature in the physical geography of Denmark, is the number and extent of the inlets of the sea, or rather lagoons, by which the continental part of the country is intersected. The principal of these lagoons, the Lymfiord, formerly communicated only by a narrow channel with the Cattegat, stretching thence westerly, with long windings, and expanding in various places into immense sheets of water, encompassing large islands, across the peninsula of Jutland almost to the North sea. In 1825, however, during a violent storm, the isthmus between the North sea and the Lymfiord was broken down in two places, so that it now isolates the northern portion of Jutland. There are other fiords, but none so extensive as this. They, as well as the bays and rivers, are well-stocked with fish, the fishery being a principal business and dependence of the inhabitants.

Islands.—The Feroe islands are 25 in number, 17 of them inhabited. They lie northwest of Denmark, between the Shetland isles and Iceland. They are of basaltic formation, some 3,000 feet above the sea. At a distance the islands are like immense towers, castles, fortifications, spires, &c., forming grand and picturesque scenes. Climate, rigorous; coal and copper are found; soil thin and mossy; fishing, bird-catching, and stocking manufacture, the chief occupation of the people, who originally came from Denmark and Norway, and are governed after the same manner as the Danish colonies; there are 39 parishes, and every village has a Lutheran church, under the bishop of Zealand.

Climate.—The great extent of sea and the flat coasts, render the air humid

* For description of Iceland, see page 43. Other colonial possessions of Denmark in America will also be found noticed on previous pages.

and foggy. In Jutland the winter cold is severe, and at Copenhagen the sound is sometimes frozen over. The heat of summer is frequently oppressive. Rain falls one third of the year. The climate is salubrious as attested by the longevity of the people, the abundant agricultural produce, the numerous herds of oxen, and the fine breed of horses, for which Denmark, and especially Holstein, is famed.

Chief Towns.—Copenhagen, the capital of the Danish dominions since 1443, situated on a low promontory on the east side of the island of Zealand, is a noble-looking city, five miles in circumference, and well fortified. A part of the city called Christianshaven is built on the adjacent Amager island, and connected by a bridge. The houses are of brick, stone, and Norwegian marble. Its population is about 120,000. Elsinore, a small seaport on the borders of the Sound, distant twenty-six miles from Copenhagen, is famed for the old castle of Cronenburg, constructed in 1574. Prince Hamlet's garden is situated in the vicinity. It is estimated that upward of 15,000 vessels annually pass the sound, on each of which a tonnage-duty is levied. Altona, upon the Elbe, near Hamburg, ranks next to Copenhagen; it is a commercial port, and has about 35,000 inhabitants. Gluckstadt, the capital of Holstein, is also upon the Elbe; it is well-built, and wealthy. Flensburg is the most important town in Schleswig; it has about 20,000 inhabitants, several manufactories, and much commerce.

Productive Resources.—Domestic animals form the principal wealth of Denmark. Cattle, horses, sheep, swine, and poultry, are bred for exportation. Potatoes, flax, hemp, madder, tobacco, &c., are among the agricultural products. The mineral products are but of little value. The manufactures are extremely rude, and are confined principally to articles for domestic use. Denmark possesses an active foreign and country trade.

Education.—Every town or village has a primary school; there are also various high seminaries, civil and military, and many educational establishments in every branch of art and science. Tycho Brahe in astronomy, Malte-Brun in geography, Thorswalsden in sculpture, and many other eminent men, confer honor on the country of their birth.

Government.—The government is an hereditary monarchy, with a representative assembly, and a privy council for the management of the higher affairs of state. The country is divided into seven bailiwicks for local matters. Schleswig, Holstein, and Lauenberg, have separate governors, and their own provincial laws. The army is about 50,000, with a militia for emergencies. Each district is bound to supply one recruit soldier annually for every thirty-two tons of corn reared; period of service, twelve years. The navy is at present small; but from the maritime character of the people, capable of ready augmentation.

Four Marks, 50 cents.

History.—Denmark and the adjacent countries, originally known as Scandinavia, was probably peopled by migrating hordes who passed from the north to more fertile regions and warmer climates. The Jutlanders were known to the Romans as the Chersonesus Cambrica, and the Cimbri, or people of Schleswig, together with the Teutones, made incursions into the Roman province of Gallia. The Goths, under Odin, spread themselves over Scandinavia, and the first king of Denmark is said to have been Skiold, a son of Odin. It is probable that for several centuries the "Mark," or country of the Danes, consisted of many petty states, under the sway of maritime chiefs, whose piratical achievements struck terror into the adjacent regions. Under the title

of Danes, they ravaged England and Ireland; and under the designation of Northmen or Normans, they swept along the coasts of France, Spain, Italy, Sicily, and even as far as Constantinople, everywhere influencing events by their bravery and talents, and leaving to the present day in the abovenamed countries the distinguishing traits of their character. In the ninth century the Danes and Norwegians separated into distinct states; in 920, Gorm, who had subjected Jutland, united all the petty Danish chiefs under his sceptre; Sven or Swain, grandson of Gorm, in 1000, conquered part of Norway, and invaded England; Canute the Great, his son, in 1016, conquered the whole of England, part of Scotland, part of Ireland, and, in 1030, the whole of Norway. The Irish, under Brian Boru, after the defeat of the Danes at Clontarf, in 1014, expelled them from Ireland; in 1042 they were driven from England, and shortly afterward from Norway. In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries the Danes spread themselves over and conquered several countries on the Baltic; in 1397, Margaret, of Valdemar, a princess renowned in Danish history, united the crowns of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, which union lasted for a century and a half; in 1448 the count of Oldenburg, founder of the present royal Danish line, was elected monarch, under the title of Christian I. Frequent wars between the Danes and Swedes mark successive centuries until 1720, when Denmark enjoyed peace for many years. In 1813, the crown prince of Sweden compelled the Danes to cede Norway to him, on account of his evacuating Schleswig and Holstein, and surrendering Pomerania, which latter territory, together with Rugen, in 1815, was ceded by Denmark to Prussia, for Lauenberg. The king of Denmark then entered the German Confederation, holding three votes for the duchies of Holstein and Lauenberg. In 1834, the king granted to the people a constitutional government. In 1848, Holstein and Schleswig revolted, and a bloody war ensued, which resulted in the provinces being brought back to their allegiance.

KINGS OF DENMARK.

Canute the Great....1014	Suenon III.....1147	Olaus III.....1375	Frederick III.....1648
Hardicanute II.....1036	Waldemar the Great.1157	Margaret I.....1375	Christian V.....1670
Magnus I.....1041	Canute V.....1182	Eric IX.....1411	Frederick IV.....1699
Suenon II.....1048	Waldemar II.....1202	Christopher III.....1439	Christian VI.....1730
Harold IV.....1079	Eric VI.....1240	Christian I.....1448	Frederick V.....1746
Canute III.....1080	Abel I.....1250	John.....1481	Christian VII.....1766
Olaus II.....1086	Christopher I.....1252	Christian II.....1513	Frederick VI.....1808
Eric III.....1097	Eric VII.....1259	Frederick.....1523	Christian VIII.....1839
Nicholas.....1106	Eric VIII.....1286	Christian III.....1534	Frederick VII.....1848
Eric IV.....1135	Christopher II.....1319	Frederick II.....1559	
Eric V.....1138	Waldemar III.....1340	Christian IV.....1588	

SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

Specie Rix-Dollar, $1.

These kingdoms have been united since 1814, under the rule of the same sovereign, but with distinct constitutions and administrations. Their joint territory extends between the parallels of 56° and 71° north latitude, and between the meridians of 5° and 32° east longitude, and is bounded on the north by the Northern ocean, on the west by the Atlantic, on the east by Russia,

Florin, 50 cents.

Lapland, the gulf of Bothnia, and the Baltic, and on the south by the Skager-Rack and Cattegat, which separate it from Denmark; length, about 1,100 miles; breadth, from 200 to 470 miles; area, 292,104 square miles; of which Sweden contains 170,096, and Norway, 122,008.

Physical Aspect.—Sweden forms an inclined plane from the Norwegian Alps to the gulf of Bothnia and the Baltic, with occasional chains or spurs to the southeast, and intersected by numerous rivers and lakes; the coast-line is high, rugged, and on the Baltic broken into many islands. The Atlantic strikes with considerable force on the Norwegian coast, and has caused the formation of many islands, and extensive fiords, lochs, or inlets of the sea.* The scenery in both Sweden and Norway is wild and grand; the north sterile in the extreme: the mountains are thickly clad with forests of the stately pine; the valleys in summer are rich with the foliage of various deciduous trees; the romantic beauty is enhanced by naked precipices, foaming cataracts, and picturesque glaciers, which give an indescribable charm to the green and secluded glens, the creeks, inlets, lakes, and rivers of this singular country. Vegetation is regulated by latitude and altitude; in Norway, fruit-trees flourish at an elevation of 1,000 feet; spruce-fir, at 2,000; silver-fir and beech, at 3,000; and the juniper alone, at 3,200 feet above the sea. Barley and oats thrive in sheltered valleys at 1,600 feet; snow limit is 3,500 to 4,000 feet.

Mountains.—The kingdoms are separated by a ridge of mountains, varying from 3,000 to 6,000 feet in height, and 1,000 miles in length, parallel with the Norwegian coast, from which they are distant in some places one hundred, and in others not fifty miles.

Rivers and Lakes.—The lakes and rivers of the Scandinavian peninsula are numerous, though the rivers, rising in the mountains, and having the divided breadth of the peninsula, are necessarily short. Among them are the Dohl, Glommen, Dramme, Kalix, Indal, and Tornea rivers; and lakes Wener, Wetter, and Mœlar (on which Stockholm is built), in Sweden; and Mjosen, Rund Sion, and Faemund, in Norway. Floating islands, composed of matted turf and sea-grass, with shrubs, give a pleasing effect to the inland waters. There is no country in Europe of equal size, presenting such grand and picturesque scenery by flood and field, as Norway and Sweden. The extraordinary clearness of the water of the fiords of Norway and the Northern seas generally has been noted by travellers. There are about 360 mineral springs in Sweden; the baths of Medevi, and the wells of Loka Säter, Ramlösa, and Rottenby, are celebrated.

Climate.—The climate is very severe in winter, but with a short hot summer and pleasant autumn. From November to March the gulf of Bothnia is frozen over, and travellers cross it on the ice. The splendid aurora borealis or northern lights in some degree compensate for the long nights of winter in this latitude. In the north, at Finmark, the sun continues above the horizon for two months and a half in summer, and remains absent for an equally lengthened period in winter.

Productive Resources.—Among the agricultural products of Sweden are, wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, potatoes, flax, hemp, tobacco, beet-root for sugar, &c. Horses, horned cattle, sheep, &c., are bred to a considerable extent. About one acre of land in fifty is arable, two in fifty pastoral, and the remainder woods, rivers, lakes, marshes, and rocks. The agricultural produce of Norway is similar, and the live stock consists of horses, cattle, sheep, goats, swine, reindeer, &c. There are public granaries in which the farmers may deposite their surplus grain, and receive an advance of money thereon for a limited period.

* The celebrated whirlpool of Maelstrom is situated between two of the Luffoden islands on the north coast, and probably communicates with a subterranean passage, through which the sea finds its way into the gulf of Bothnia. The diameter of the whirlpool is about two miles, concave toward the centre like a funnel, where the hissing waters foam and rush with fearful velocity, especially during storms. Ships, and even whales, once drawn within the edge of the vortex, are said to be sucked down; but with a favorable breeze a ship may safely approach it within two or three miles.

The forests of Norway and Sweden are immense; fir, pine, oak, beech, and elm, grow to a gigantic size, and are a great source of wealth: general vegetation and fruits are scanty, and of few varieties. Sweden has long been noted for its mineral treasures; the mines of silver, copper, lead, and especially iron, constitute the chief wealth of the country; the latter is esteemed the finest in the world, partly owing to the wood used in its preparation. The copper mines of Fahlun and Dalecaria have been worked for a thousand years. In Norway the silver mines of Kongsburg, the copper mines of Roraas, and the iron mines of Arendal, and other places, are rich and productive; cobalt is also extensively found.

Political Divisions.—Sweden is divided into twenty-five läns or governments, the names of which, with their respective populations in 1839, and chief towns, are as follows:—

Districts.	Population.	Chief Towns.	Population.
Linkioping	200,588	Linkioping	3,000
Kalmar	179,300	Kalmar	4,500
Jonkioping	148,593	Jonkioping	3,000
Kronoberg	118,309	Wexio	1,300
Blekengen	93,849	Carlscrona	10,588
Skaraborg	179,449	Mariestadt	1,100
Elfsborg	218,698	Wennersborg	1,500
Gottenburg	164,598	Gottenburg	21,058
Halmstadt	94,832	Halmstadt	1,500
Christianstadt	162,809	Christianstadt	3,000
Malmoe	218,074	Malmoe,	6,000
Gothland	42,689	Wisby	3,800
Oeland	30,000		
Stockholm	195,227	Stockholm*	79,526
Upsal	85,393	Upsal	4,500
Westeras	92,411	Westeras	3,000
Nykœping	113,753	Nykœping	2,300
Orebro	125,393	Orebro	3,000
Carlstadt	192,879	Carlstadt	2,200
Stora Kopperberg	141,208	Fahlun	4,700
Geffeborg	109,382	Gefle	6,000
Jamptland	45,517	Æstersund	200
North Bothnia	46,422	Pitea	800
West Bothnia	55,256	Umea	1,100
West Norland	85,242	Hernosand	1,800
Total	3,139,722		

The following are the names of the districts of Norway, with their respective populations in 1835 (the latest of which we have the details), and chief towns:—

Districts.	Population.	Chief Towns.	Population.
Agershuus	94,832	Christiana	23,121
Smaalehnen	65,296	Moss	3,277
Hedemark	72,729	Frederickstadt	2,405
Christian	95,182	Frederickhaldt	4,921
Budskernd	76,786	Drammen	7,250
Jarlsberg and Laurwig	56,759	Kongsburg	3,540
Bratsberg	67,794	Laurwig	3,413
Nedenæs and Raabygdel	47,584	Skien	2,625
Lister and Mandal	55,478	Arendel	3,229
Stavanger	67,674	Christiansand	7,665
City of Bergen	22,839	Mandal	2,102
Lower Bergenhuus	85,595	Stavanger	4,857
Upper Bergenhuus	70,776	Bergen†	22,830
Romsdal	72,742	Christian Sound	2,347
Lower Drontheim	79,640	Drontheim	12,358
Upper Drontheim	59,854		
Northland	58,763		
Finmark	37,504		
Total	1,194,827		

Manufactures.—There are 16,578 artisans employed in 2,302 manufacturing establishments, whose products are valued at $6,000,000.

Commerce.—The entire exports of Norway, consisting principally of timber, iron, copper, and cobalt, are estimated to amount in value to $10,000,000 annually. The commerce of Sweden is not so extensive, her surplus timber not being so ample, though her iron is superior.

Education.—Ninety-nine persons out of every hundred in Sweden can read and write. Primary schools are established in every parish, and in the provincial towns high schools, where the youth are prepared for the university, of which there are two, one at Upsal, and the other at Lund, each of which has separate faculties of law, physic, divinity, and philosophy and literature. The inhabitants of Norway are not so extensively furnished with educational means, though they have a knowledge of the common branches of education. There is a university at Christiana.

Government.—An hereditary limited monarchy, with a diet, or parliament of two houses, in which the four orders of nobles, clergy, burghers, and peas-

* Stockholm, the capital of Sweden, is favorably situated for trade on an inlet of the Baltic, opposite the gulf of Finland; the houses near the harbor are built on successive terraces. The public edifices, church spires, numerous buildings, waters studded with islands, vessels, villas, and gardens, all combine to produce an extraordinary picture. The royal palace is a square building with wings on each side, and a façade richly ornamented with Grecian pilasters.

† Bergen, the capital of Norway, built on the margin of one of the inlets of the Atlantic on the western coast, has a good harbor, and a few stone edifices, such as the castle and cathedral; the houses are chiefly built of wood. Barrow gives a graphic description of his first view of Bergen, and speaks of the immense glaciers on the Folgefonde, 5,590 feet high, distant twenty miles southeast of Bergen, as a very grand object: when illumined by the rays of the sun the glaciers are said to present "as beautiful and brilliant colors as those of the rainbow.

ants, are represented. Norway possesses a similar constitution; a council of state advises the sovereign.

Ten Thalers, $7.80.

History.—Sweden, originally peopled by the Finns and Lapponians, was reduced to a regular form of government in 954, by Olof, one of the Upsala kings, who embraced Christianity; for many centuries the Goths and Swedes remained distinct tribes, but in 1250 became one nation. Queen Margaret of Denmark, by the treaty of Calmar, in 1397, united Sweden and Norway to her dominions; but in 1448 they separated from Denmark and chose their own king. In 1520 Christian II. of Denmark conquered Sweden; in 1521 Gustavus Vasa, a Swedish nobleman, drove out the Danes, and was proclaimed king in 1523, and the throne settled on his descendants; one of whom, Gustavus Adolphus, fell at the battle of Lutzen, in supporting the protestant German princes. Christina, his daughter, by the aid of her able minister, Oxenstiern, generals, and army, added largely to the Swedish dominions; but having subsequently renounced the protestant faith, she abdicated the throne in 1654, and retired to Rome, where she died in 1689. Sweden had attained great prosperity when Charles XII. ascended the throne, but during his reign, from 1697 to 1718, the nation was engaged in constant wars until his death at the siege of Friedrickshall, in Norway, gave peace to the country. During the French revolutionary war, Sweden alternately aided or opposed France; in 1810, on the death of the prince royal, the Swedish states elected the French marshal, Bernadotte, as their crown prince, who embraced the reformed faith, fought against Napoleon, in 1814 obtained Norway, and gave up Swedish Pomerania to Denmark; and on the death of Charles XIII., in 1818, he ascended the throne as Charles John XIV. His son, by a daughter of Prince Eugene, named Francis Gustavus Oscar, is now king of Sweden and Norway.

Ten Thalers. $7.80.

KINGS OF SWEDEN.

Gustavus Vasa.....1523	Gustavus Adolphus II.1611	Ulrica Eleanora.....1718	Charles XIII.....1809
Eric XIV.....1556	Christina.....1632	Frederick.....1720	Charles John XIV...1818
John III.....1569	Charles X.....1654	Adolphus Frederick..1751	Oscar I.....1844
Sigismond I.....1592	Charles XI.....1660	Gustav. Adolphus III.1771	
Charles IX.....1606	Charles XII.....1697	Guatav. Adolphus IV.1792	

LAPLAND.

Lapland is almost entirely an arctic region, and is consequently the coldest and most desolate country in Europe. The eastern portion nominally belongs to Russia, the western to Norway, and the southern to Sweden.

Physical Aspect.—The seacoast of Lapland presents a continuation of the same bold and rocky features which distinguish that of Norway. The country is rough, mountainous, and dreary. Some of its mountain peaks are 4,000 feet high. Vegetation is scanty, and agriculture but little attended to.

Inhabitants.—The Laplanders are of the same race as the Greenlanders, and live in a similar manner, in small villages, thinly scattered over the country. They are short, stout, brown, with black hair, pointed chin, and eyes rendered weak by exposure to the smoke and snow. They are divided into the mountain or wandering Laplanders, and those who dwell in what are called villages. The swift-footed reindeer, which they train to draw them in sledges over the snow, form their riches; the flesh and milk of these animals compose their food, and their skins their furniture. The entire population of Lapland is about 60,000.

History.—When the Laplanders were first known to the rest of the world they were independent. In the thirteenth century they became subject to the king of Norway. The Swedes and Russians next invaded the territory, and at present the country (as before remarked) is subject to the governments of Sweden and Russia.

RUSSIA (IN EUROPE).

Rouble, 73 cents.

This vast empire, including its territory in Europe and in Asia, extends over from seven to eight millions square miles, of which 2,120,397 square miles constitutes European Russia, which is bounded on the north by the Arctic ocean, northeast by the Ural mountains, which separate European from Asiatic Russia, southeast by the Caspian sea, south by parts of Persia, Asia Minor, and by the Black sea, southwest by the dominions of Turkey, and west by Austria, Prussia, the Baltic sea, and the gulf of Bothnia. The country extends from the Caucasian range of mountains and Mount Ararat in 40° to the province of Archangel in 70° north latitude, and is in length from north to south about 1,720, and in breadth from east to west about 1,800 miles.

Physical Aspect.—The greater part of the interior is a vast plain, with successive steppes of table-land to the southward; on the extreme northwest is the lofty Scandinavian range, which stretches to the gulf of Finland; on the east the Ural chain for 1,200 miles separates Europe from Asia; and on the south the Caucasian ridge extends from the Caspian sea, along the Black sea, to the sea of Azof, with collateral spurs and chains. Mount Taurus rises almost perpendicularly to 6,800 feet. The Alaunian hills run northeast and southwest through Moscow, Tver, &c., and form the highest districts of the central champagne country. Vast tracts are covered with forests; and immense steppes or plains, in Vologda on the north, and in the Kosak country on the south, are arid; in some places there are marshes, in others salt and clayey plains, with a scanty brushwood. Toward the White sea on the north the country flattens, and on the southwest toward the Black sea.

Seas, Rivers, and Lakes.—The Arctic or Icy sea, the White sea, the Black sea, the Caspian, the Baltic, and the gulf of Finland, form an extensive water frontier. The rivers of Russia are numerous. Those which flow into the Arctic ocean are, the Paswig (the outlet of Lake Enara), the Kola, the Petchora (a large river which has its source in the Urals), and the Onega, the Divina, and the Mezen, which flow into the White sea. The Divina is a large and important river, and forms at its mouth the harbor of Archangel. Those flowing into the basin of the Baltic and its several arms are, the Tornea and Muonio, which form the boundary between Russia and Sweden; the Kunmene, and the Neva (a large river, the outlet of Lake Ladoga, which enters the gulf of Finland at St. Petersburg). It is frozen over for five months in the year. The Swir unites Lakes Onega and Ladoga. The Duna rises not far from the sources of the Volga, and flows into the gulf of Livonia below Riga. It is navigable up to Velige, in the eastern part of the government of Vitepsk. The Niemen rises in the government of Minsk, and flows into the Curische-haf, below Memul, and the Vistula flows through Russian Poland, receiving in its course several considerable tributaries. The Black sea receives the Don or Tanai, the Dnieper, the Dniester, the Pruth, and Kouban; and the Ural and Volga empty their waters into the Caspian sea. The Volga is 2,300 miles long, and is navigable from the Caspian to Tver. Lakes in Russia are numerous. The largest is Ladoga, in the northwest, which covers an area of 7,200 square miles. Lake Onega is the second in size. These, with Saima and many others, are situated between the gulf of Finland and the White sea. The other principal lakes are, the Bieloe Ozero (White lake), and the Ilmen, in the gov

ernment of Novgorod; the Peïpous or Tchoude, between St. Petersburg and Livonia; Kubinsk, in Vologda; the Bolchoi-ilmen, formed by the Manytsh, an affluent of the Don; the Enara, in Lapland, &c.

Climate.—The climate of Russia is diversified according to latitude. Its geographical extent and position indicate extremes both of heat and cold, the winters being more severe, and the summers more warm, than other parts of Europe in the same latitude. In the south the winters are short, and the summers long and warm. The middle region has a rough and long-continued winter; and at Moscow, in latitude 56°, the mean temperature of the year is 40° Fahrenheit. At St. Petersburg, in latitude 60°, the winter extends from September to May.

Political Divisions.—The following table contains the names of the provinces (including the Caucasian, by some geographers attached to Asiatic Russia), or governments into which European Russia is divided, with their respective areas and populations:—

Provinces.	Area in square miles.	Population.
Great Russia:—		
Moscow	11,500	1,399,782
Smolensk	21,000	1,058,650
Pskov	21,900	720,324
Novgorod	55,000	709,623
Olonetz	67,000	236,570
Archangel	350,000	225,494
Vologda	150,000	790,101
Kostroma	38,400	980,213
North Novgorod	20,400	1,118,298
Vladimir	17,500	1,135,108
Tula	12,000	1,190,238
Kaluga	10,560	943,677
Tver	24,000	1,323,839
Yaroslav	17,000	1,012,761
Koursk	16,000	1,814,592
Orlov	17,000	1,410,312
Riazan	14,000	1,230,482
Tambov	24,000	1,664,714
Voronez	30,000	1,564,529
Total	917,260	20,528,702
Little Russia:—		
Kiev	20,500	1,586,032
Tchernigov	23,000	1,350,136
Polava	22,000	1,632,020
Kharkov	21,000	1,210,011
Total	86,500	5,778,197
Western Russia:—		
Lithuania—		
Vilna	24,400	783,225
Minsk	37,000	934,926
Grodno	15,000	794,991
Mogilev	19,300	850,166
Vitepsk	16,800	756,537
Volhynia	29,000	1,412,906
Podolsk, Uk	15,000	1,515,745
Bialystok	3,400	251,000
Total	159,900	7,299,499
Eastern Russia:—		
Astrachan	43,000	130,000
Saratov	73,000	1,717,303
Orenburg	128,000	1,734,690
Total	244,000	3,581,993

Provinces.	Area in square miles.	Population.
Southern Russia:—		
Ekaterinoslav	35,000	835,441
Kherson	36,000	765,800
Taurida	30,000	520,200
Donkozaks	53,000	640,300
Bessarabia	16,000	800,000
Total	170,000	3,561,741
Baltic Provinces:—		
St. Petersburg	18,600	933,950
Finland	144,000	1,393,727
Esthonia	7,230	282,776
Livonia	17,340	782,937
Courland	10,000	512,169
Total	197,170	3,905,559
Caucasian Provinces:—		
Georgia	18,000	450,000
Caucasus	40,000	15 .000
Daghestan	9,300	190,000
Igmeritia	4,830	170,000
Shirvan, &c	9,200	135,000
Armenia	8,000	160,000
Guriai, &c	1,500	64,000
Mingrelia, &c	7,200	430,000
Circassia	32,250	550,000
Total	122,280	1,899,000
Russian Poland:—		
Sandomir	5,500	415,886
Kalisz	6,540	649,328
Lublin	6,650	518,930
Plock	6,500	496,807
Masovia and Warsaw	7,350	836,486
Podlachia	7,250	381,703
Augustow	7,820	566,035
Total	47,610	4,298,962
Kasan:—		
Kasan	23,500	1,265,000
Viatka	52,500	1,529,581
Perm	127,000	1,488,800
Simbirsk	24,000	1,199,000
Penza	14,000	978,322
Total	241,000	6,460,703

Population.—The population of Russia, numbering, as given in the above table, over 60,000,000, and speaking forty languages, are divisible into Slavonians or Russians (40,000,000), Finns (3,000,000), Cossacks (2,000,000), Tartars (2,000,000), Calmucks, Mongols, Manchoos, Jews (1,500,000), Polar tribes, Circassians (2,000,000), and colonists, viz., Germans, French, Turks, Greeks, &c. They are divided into six classes, viz,, the nobility, clergy, citizens, peasants, serfs, and slaves. There are fourteen classes of nobility;

most of the public employments are filled with nobles; and none is eligible who does not belong to one of the fourteen classes of rank into which the officers of the civil and military service and the clergy are arranged. The clergy are exempt from taxation and corporal punishment; privileges which are extended to their eldest sons, who are liable, however, to military service. Every inhabitant of a town, who is neither noble nor the property of another, is a citizen; and citizens are divided into four classes, styled notables, and members of the three guilds. The next class is that of the peasants, who are distinguished in six classes: 1, the old proprietors, who cultivate their own land; 2, the Tartars, Baschkirs, and other races in the southeast; 3, the peasants of Finland; 4, colonists of foreign origin: 5, the inhabitants of the military colonies in the southeast; and, 6, the free cultivators, who enjoy immunity from taxation, on condition of keeping post-horses for the public service, which they furnish at a charge fixed by government. Below the peasants are the serfs, who are chiefly peasants on the crown-land, or in the province of Livonia. The crown-peasants amount to about 12,000,000, some of whom labor in the fields, and others in the mines and manufactories. The peasants of Livonia, amounting to about 560,000, were slaves until the year 1804, when they first obtained the rights of serfs. They are still subject to some peculiar claims, which, however, are fixed, and they can not be removed from the soil without their own consent. The last and most numerous class is that of slaves, whose number is about 23,000,000. They are in law considered as chattels, not as persons; are attached to the soil, and incapable of acquiring property in land; may be bought, sold, or exchanged, with little more ceremony than cattle; and have no other protection against their master than a regard for his own interests in their welfare. The Russian character is distinct from that of any other European nation —laborious, quick, keen, imitative, and superstitious; acquiring languages with remarkable facility; generally devoid of imagination; tolerant, hospitable, and polite; good soldiers and hardy seamen.

Chief Cities and Towns.—St. Petersburg, the capital, covers about thirty square miles on islands and on the mainland at the mouth of the river Neva. At the commencement of the eighteenth century, where this fine city now stands there were a few fishermen's log huts; in 1703 Peter the Great built his own wooden hut there; and in 1711 the first tenement of brick was constructed. It now contains more than half a million of inhabitants, and some of the most magnificent structures in Europe. The church of St. Isaac cost about $20,000,000. Cronstadt, a strong fortress and naval arsenal, and the port of St. Petersburg, is situated at the east end of a large sandy island in the gulf, about sixteen miles west from the mouth of the Neva. It is so strongly fortified as to be deemed impregnable, completely commanding the passage to St. Petersburg. The population is about 40,000. Moscow, in 55° 45′ north, and the ancient capital (population, 300,000), is of immense extent; the buildings are grand, and the architecture more Eastern than European. The Kremlin is a fortress, palace, castle, and cathedral; containing the public offices, &c. It is a vast structure, with walls sixteen feet thick, and from thirty to sixty feet in height, with battlements, embrasures, towers, and gates. Sevastapol, on the Black sea, is an impregnable fortress, and Odessa a place of much corn trade. Riga, on the Baltic, has considerable commerce. There are many other cities, fortresses, and towns in the empire. Among them may be named, Revel, Dorpot, Miltau, Helsengfois, Archangel, Abo, Wilna, Warsaw (formerly the capital of Poland), Kïef (the most ancient seat of Christianity in Russia), Poltava (memorable for the victory of Peter the Great over Charles XII. of Sweden, in 1709), Orel, Toula, Kaluga, Tver, Smolensk, Novgorod, Vologda, Jaraslavl, Kazan, Orenburg, Saratov, Tzaritzen, Astrakahn, Cherson, Odessa, and Ismail.

Productive Resources.—Among the productions of Russia are, corn, timber, flax, cordage, linen, sailcloth, leather, cottons, woollens, silks, velvets, refined sugar, linseed, provisions, hides, tallow, soaps, fish, oils, ashes, furs, tar, pitch, gold, and iron. There are several government manufactories of cloth, and firearms, cannon, and military weapons. The mines yielded, from 1820 to 1829—gold 65,630, silver 412,426, and platina 6,067 pounds avoirdupois. The gold now annually produced is from $15,000,000 to $20,000,000 in value; 250,000,000 pounds of iron is annually wrought. There are 7,000,000 sheep in the Crimea alone. The Caspian fisheries are valued at over two millions of dollars.

Railroads and Canals.—Railroads have been built between St. Petersburg and Moscow, from St. Petersburg to Czarkocelo, and from Warsaw to Kosel. Canals connect the Baltic with the Caspian, and with the Black sea; also the White sea with the Caspian. There is an extensive inland water communication in various directions, and a traveller may pass from St. Petersburg to Selmginsk, in Siberia, 4,124 miles, with only a few miles of portages.

Commerce.—The trade of Russia is very extensive and varied. With China (at Kiahta), Siberia, Tartary, Persia, Turkey, Austria, and the adjacent regions, there is an active land traffic. The trade with Great Britain, Hamburg, France, several European states, and with the United States, is valuable; and in almost every instance the balance of trade is in favor of Russia. The export trade is in value about $500,000,000, consisting of tallow, flax, hemp, corn, potash, hides, linseed, grain, timber, copper, iron, cordage, sailcloth, cattle, fur, &c. The imports consist of coffee, spices, wines and liquors, fish, salt, tobacco, fruit, raw cotton, cotton twist, indigo, cochineal, madder, logwood, and other dyewoods, drugs, olive-oil, hardware, lead, raw sugar, silk, cotton, silk and worsted goods, cloths, and precious stones; but the importation of every sort of manufactured or other produce that can compete with the manufactures or natural produce of Russia, is expressly prohibited. The commercial marine of Russia is small, British, American, and Prussian vessels being the principal carriers of their produce. The Russian fur colonies at Sitka, or New Archangel, on the northwestern coast of America, supply a lucrative barter trade in furs.

Education.—Public education is subjected to the direct control of government. The schools are divided into four classes, viz.: 1, parish and district schools, gymnasia, and universities; 2, military schools; 3, ecclesiastical schools; and, 4, special and various other schools. There are seven universities, and over fifty gymnasia. Besides the institutions engaged directly in the education of youth, Russia has academies of sciences, learned societies, public libraries, and museums. The press is under a strict censorship.

Religion.—The Greek church is the dominant religion of the empire; but all other religions are not only tolerated, but even freely professed, difference of creed being no obstacle to the attainment of public employments.

Government.—The government of Russia is despotic; all power centres in the hereditary emperor, who may consult his ministers or privy council at will. A senate administers justice, and a synod administers religion. Each government or province is ruled over by a civil and a military governor, who sometimes unites both offices, and exercises all the delegated authority of the emperor. In each province there is a council of government, tribunals of criminal and civil justice, a court of equity, a chamber of finance, and a chamber of general internal economy. The council of state, over which the emperor presides, includes the ministers or heads of the departments for home and foreign affairs, war, marine, public instruction, finance, justice, police, engineering, architecture, and religion, who, with other persons named by the emperor, are divided into four departments for legislative, military, civil, and church affairs. The revenue of Russia is about $100,000,000; national debt, $250,000,000.

Army and Navy.—The army is raised by conscription, and numbers nearly a million of men, whose legal term of service is twenty-five years, and whose pay is about two cents a day, with 150 pounds of meal and forty-four pounds of salt annually. Cost of army, $15,000,000. The naval force consists of five divisions, two stationed in the Black sea, and three in the Baltic.

Rouble, 73 cents.

History.—The Sclavonians (a Sarmatian race) and the Scandinavians may be considered the chief founders of this great empire. In the fifth and sixth centuries the Sclavonians embraced Christianity, formed the cities of Novgorod and Kiev, and in the ninth century, in 862, invited Ruric, a Varangian or Scandinavian chief, to protect them. Ruric and his followers settled on Lake Ladoga, and established a dominion, to which they gave the name of Russia. Vladimir, great grandson of Ruric, married a Greek princess in 981, introduced the Greek form of Christianity, civilized his people, and extended his ducal territories. In the thirteenth century the Mongols conquered and laid waste nearly the whole of Russia except Novgorod, and were not driven out until 1481, by Ivan Basilovitch the Great. His successor took possession of Astrachan, the Caucasian provinces, and other districts, in 1554. Siberia was discovered in 1578, and conquered in 1587. In 1613 the house of Romanoff, still in possession of the throne, acquired supreme authority. The czars of Russia now became possessed of considerable European power, and under the able sway of Peter the Great, their territories were extended to the Baltic. Peter established a Russian navy, founded St. Petersburg, and secured his position on the Black sea; and at his death, in 1725, bequeathed a vast, yet consolidated empire, to his wife Catherine I., who died in 1727. During the reign of Catherine II., from 1762 to 1796, the Russian territories were greatly augmented by conquests, and by the partition of Poland, and extended from the Baltic along the northwest part of America to the Rurile islands adjoining Japan, and to Persia on the south. She founded new cities, improved the old, encouraged agriculture, manufactures, and the arts and sciences, and left to her son and successor, Paul, an annual revenue of $45,000,000, an army of 450,000 men, and forty-five ships-of-the-line. Paul, capricious and tyrannical, was murdered by his own nobles, 23d March, 1801, shortly after his conclusion of a treaty with Napoleon, then first consul of France. Alexander, the son of Paul, a sagacious prince, who effectually aided England and Prussia against France in 1814–'15, died in 1825, and was succeeded by his brother, the grand duke Nicholas. The invasion of Russia by Napoleon, with an army of nearly half a million of men, in 1812; his capture of Moscow; the setting on fire of their city in the midst of winter by the Russians; the destruction of the French army by cold, by famine, and by the sword; and the flight of Napoleon and the remnant of his troops, constitute one of the most fearful catastrophes in history. From the time that Nicholas ascended the throne, all the energies of his mind and the resources of the government have been concentrated on the augmentation of the power of the empire; and the events of the last few years have immensely increased his influence over the European continent, making him the bulwark of despotic governments.

CZARS OR EMPERORS OF RUSSIA.

Michael Fedorowitz..1613	Catherine I.....1725	Elizabeth.....1741	Alexander.....1801
Alexis.....1645	Peter II.....1727	Peter III.....1762	Nicholas.....1825
Theodore III.....1676	Anne.....1730	Catherine II.....1762	
Peter the Great.....1682	John V.....1740	Paul I.....1796	

ITALY.

Five Lire, 93 cents.

Italy, the most-favored portion of Europe, in respect to geographical position, climate, scenery, and soil, is marked by distinctive natural features. It lies between 36° and 47° north latitude, and 6° and 19° east longitude. On the north a gigantic Alpine barrier shelters the land of the sunny south; the Adriatic, like a peaceful inland lake, laves the eastern shores; the Tuscan sea and gulf of Genoa form the western frontier; and on the south the Mediterranean separates Sicily from Africa. The extent of Italy from Mount Rosa, the highest summit of the Italian Alps, to the Cape de Leuca, is 670 miles, and its breadth varies from 100 to 400 miles. The surface, including the islands, is estimated at 120,000 square miles. The northern portion of Italy includes Piedmont and the Sardinian states; Venetian Lombardy, the duchies of Tuscany, of Parma, Placentia, and Guastella, of Modena, Mirandola, and Massa; the principality of Carrara, the republic of Lucca, the islands of Corsica and Elba, and the Papal States. Southern Italy comprises Naples, and the island of Sicily, commonly called the Two Sicilies. Ancient Italy consisted of three great divisions: Cisalpine Gaul in the north, Italy proper in the centre, and Magna Græcia in the south.

Physical Aspect.—The natural features of the country are as varied as the political divisions; the entire country forms a peninsula somewhat in the shape of the letter T, of which the southern part is called the leg of Europe. The Alps decline in slopes toward the sea, except the Apennines or "little Alps," which pass down the centre of Italy, even into Sicily, and divide Tuscany from the Italian states. On both sides the Apennine spurs stretch toward the sea, especially in Tuscany. The heights of the principal peaks of the Alps and Apennines or Little Alps are, Mont Blanc, in the Pennine Alps, 15,200 feet; Mount Ortler, in the Tyrol, 15,000 feet; Mount Viso, at the source of the Po, 13,872 feet; Mount Cenis, 11,800 feet; Great St. Bernard, 11,027 feet; Little St. Bernard, in the Graian Alps, 9,594 feet; Priory of Chamouni, in Savoy, 3.354 feet. The Apennines are less elevated than the Alps, the highest peak, Mount Corno or Gran Sasso, in Naples, is 9,542 feet; Mount Cimmice, the ancient Mons Ciminis, is 6,978 feet; the highest point of Sibilla is 7,228 feet; Pelegrino is 5,000 feet. The Alps and the Apennines are of far lesser comparative height above the sea than the Andes, but the latter rise from a table-land 8,000 to 9,000 feet above the sea. The geological formation of the Alpine summits is chiefly granitic; that of the Apennines is, with few exceptions, limestone, hence the variety of beautiful Italian marble. Though for the most part mountainous, Italy has some plains of great extent and extraordinary beauty. Of these, the most extensive and richest is that of Lombardy, or of the Po. This noble plain extends from the foot of the Alps, near Susa, to the mouths of the Po, in the Adriatic, a distance of about 250 miles, with a breadth varying from fifty to 120 miles, including nearly the whole of the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, the central portion of the Sardinian dominion, most part of the duchies of Parma and Modena, and the northern legations of the Papal States. The next great plain stretches along the western shore of Central Italy for about two hundred miles, from Pisa, in Tuscany, to Terracina, between the Papal States and Naples. Within these limits are included the Tuscan ma-

remine, great part of the campagna of Rome, and the Pontine marshes.* This plain is, in all respects, very different from the former. Though in antiquity, and to a certain extent, also, in the middle ages, it was celebrated for its fertility, and was highly-cultivated and populous, it is now comparatively a desert. This is a consequence of the prevalence of malaria, which infects these districts to such an extent as to render them, at certain periods of the year, all but uninhabitable. They are necessarily, therefore, for the most part in pasture; and are occupied by a vagrant population, who reside in the country only in the healthy season.

Rivers and Lakes.—Few countries are better watered than Italy, whether in regard to springs, rivers, or lakes. The Po, which is the principal river, has a course of 500 miles. It rises in the mountains, eighty miles west of Turin, where it becomes navigable (1,200 feet broad), and falls into the Adriatic. Of its numerous affluents, the most important are, the Baltea, Sesa, Tessino, Adda, Chiesa, and Mincio, from the north, and the Tanaro, Bormida, Trebia (famous for the great battle gained by Hannibal on its banks), and Panaro on the south. The Tiber has a course of 150 miles, and is 300 feet wide at Rome. There are many other rivers, the principal of which are, the Arno, the Adige, the Brenta, the Piave, and the Tagliamento. The most considerable of the Italian lakes are situated in the north: including those of Garda, Maggiore, Como, Lugano, &c. In Central Italy are the lakes of Perugia, Bolsena, Bracciano, Celano or Fucino, Albano, &c.; and in the south those of Averno and others, which, though insignificant in point of size, have acquired imperishable renown. Many considerable salt lagoons line the Mediterranean coast in various parts of Tuscany and the Papal States, and the shores of the Adriatic in the Venetian territories, and round the promontory of Gargano.

Islands.—The larger islands of Italy, Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica, are noticed in their proper place, in descriptions of the states to which they are attached. Malta, Gozo, Comino, and Gorgona, are small islands, lying a short distance southwest of Leghorn. Elba is a small island off the coast of Tuscany. It is noted for its iron mines, and is also celebrated in history as the residence of Napoleon, and from which he escaped in 1814. Its population is about 15,000. Pianosa, Monte Cristo, Giglio, and Giannuti, are small islands south of Elba. The Pontian islands are a volcanic group off the gulf of Gaeta. To the north of Sicily are the Lipari islands, a volcanic group. Population, 23,000. The most remarkable of these islands are Volcano and Stromboli. The former is lofty, with a crater 2,500 feet high, which emits dense vapor, accompanied with a great noise. Stromboli is a conical mountain, 2,000 feet high, with a crater in the side, about one third below the summit, which has burnt from the earliest ages, with frequent explosions, and a constant ejection of fiery matter.

Climate.—Italy possesses a delightful climate; for, though exposed from its latitude to a considerable degree of heat in summer and cold in winter, the seas which surround, and the mountains which intersect it, temper every extreme, and render all its seasons delightful. The chief drawback on the Italian climate is what is called the malaria (before referred to), by which the atmosphere becomes infected, arising from the quantity of stagnant water and marshes in the centre of the country, and on the seacoast.

Cities.—There are a greater number of noble and classic cities in Italy than are to be found within the same area in any other country. Rome, Milan, Venice, Florence, Genoa, Turin, Naples, with several others (noticed in the

* The Pontine marshes, on the coast, midway between Rome and Naples, twenty-four miles long, and from six to twelve miles in breadth, are among the most remarkable tracts in Italy. For many ages repeated efforts were made to drain these pestiferous regions, a work which has been nearly accomplished by the exertions of Popes Pius VI. and VII.; and this tract of country, which was formerly fraught with disease and death, may now be traversed with comparative safety, except in the hotter months. The Appian way and the modern road from Rome to Naples pass through them. The marshes now form luxurious pastures for cattle.

countries to which they respectively belong), attest the former opulence, the art and industry of the Italians.

Productive Resources.—Corn, wine, and oil in abundance, though carelessly and unskilfully cultivated, show the natural fertility of the soil; indeed, were the inhabitants industrious, fruit and grain might be produced in almost any quantity. In the mineral kingdom, Italy produces some precious stones, crystals, alum, basalt, talc, marble, alabaster, porphyry, saltpetre, soda, sulphur, coal, gold, silver, copper, iron, lead, and antimony. The quadrupeds of Italy are not different from those in other parts of Europe; the buffalo, however, forms an exception, being found only in this part of the continent; the cattle generally are considered of an inferior breed.

Commerce.—The exports are small, consisting chiefly of silk, rice, fruit, oil, musical instruments, and curiosities. The imports consist of manufactures of almost all kinds. The maritime commerce, which once powerfully influenced Europe and Asia, is now scarcely worth noticing, yet the seacoasts and fine harbors of Italy ought to secure her a commanding position in the Mediterranean.

Religion.—Italy has been the stronghold of Romanism, which for ages has been the prevailing faith in this fine country. No changes elsewhere have been able to shake its influence. There are a few protestant communities in Piedmont, and Jews are scattered here as in every other part of the world. The dialects of the several districts differ greatly.

Education.—Education among the lower classes is neglected; the schools are few and miserably conducted, and even the noble universities are poorly managed. The states are isolated, having each their own government, but all more or less under the control of Austria.

Inhabitants.—The inhabitants are descended from the Gauls, Germans, Normans, Greeks, and other nations, who have at different times visited and occupied the country, but each division of the peninsula presents some peculiarity in the features, form, or language of the people. The purest Italian is spoken in Tuscany. In general the Italians are a fine race, well, and even elegantly proportioned, with olive complexions, expressive features, and dark, full eyes. The women are considered very beautiful. The present race has much degenerated in martial spirit and intellectual power from that of its ancestors. The world is greatly indebted in literature and science to the Italians.

Two Lire, 36 cents.

History.—Romulus Augustulus, the last of the Roman emperors, being dethroned by Odoeacer, the chief of the Heruli, and captain of the Roman-Germanic guards, was banished by the conqueror who seized upon Rome, assumed the title of king of Italy, introduced the first principles of the feudal system, and reigned until the successful invasion of the Ostrogoths or Eastrogoths, under Theodoric, who, after finally defeating Odoeacer at Ravenna, in 493, spread themselves over Italy, and formed a new empire extending from Sicily to the Danube, of which Verona was made the capital. On the death of Theodoric, in 526, the Greeks endeavored to drive out the Ostrogoths; after a struggle of 27 years they succeeded, and all Italy became a province of the Greek empire, under the title of the Exarchate. A few tribes, however, who had fled before Attila, and established a small state in the lagunes of the Adriatic, still retained their independence, and subsequently constituted themselves into the republic of Venice. In 568, the Langobards or Lombards invaded Northern Italy, conquered many of its provinces, and fixed the seat of the Lombardian government at Paira. Lower Italy still remained under the nominal dominion of the Greek empire, but the weakness of the Greek governors enabled the bishops of Rome gradually to obtain possession of several parts of the Exarchate, which contributed to the formation of the

Papal States. In the eighth century, Astolf, the reigning monarch of Lombardy, in an endeavor to extend his territories, was brought into collision with the Roman bishop, who was supported by Pepin, the king of the Franks, which occasioned a new war in 774, and led to the overthrow of the Lombardian kingdom by Charlemagne, who united the Lombardian crown with that of the empire of the Franks. Part of the Exarchate was bestowed by Charlemagne, in 800, on Leo III., then bishop or pope of Rome. In 888 Italy became a separate kingdom. After this the cities and states began to form themselves into republics, each governed by a duke and senators. In 961 the German emperor was acknowledged sovereign of Italy, the different governments taking an oath of allegiance to him. The most opulent cities at this time were Venice, Genoa, and Pisa, all of which had a number of small states depending on them, belonging to different counts, marquises, and lords of castles. Every city was now encompassed by a wall, and had its own military force. Many of the noblemen, also, had their own separate armies. In the twelfth century, sentiments of republican freedom had sprung up among the different states, and a general desire prevailed to throw off the German supremacy. In 1152 Frederick Barbarossa became emperor of Germany. He spent thirty-three years in desolating wars, for the purpose of suppressing this spirit of revolt, in which he was but partially successful. About this time two parties, called Guelphs and Ghibellines, arose, and, for a long period, involved the leading Italian states in bloody civil wars. In the fourteenth century there were two popes, one at Rome, and the other at Avignon, in France; and finally, a third was elected. These were all set aside by the Council of Constance, in 1417, and a new pope established. Venice, founded by a few fishermen upon the marshes of the Adriatic, in the fifth century, became a powerful republic in the Middle Ages. At the commencement of the fifteenth century she had triumphed over Genoa, and the leading cities of Italy were subject to her sway. Her fleets held undisputed dominion in the Mediterranean. Toward the close of the fifteenth century the power of Venice declined. The Portuguese took away her rich commerce with India. In 1453 the Turks captured Constantinople, and deprived her of some of her most flourishing colonies. Thus Venice sunk into insignificance; and in 1797, after Napoleon's conquest of Italy, she formed a portion of the Cisalpine republic. She was restored to Austria in 1815. The history of the other Italian states need not be given in detail. The recent events in this country are interesting. Immediately after the French revolution of February, 1848, all Italy was thrown into a revolutionary ferment. Venice rebelled against Austria; the duke of Tuscany fled before an insurrection; and the king of Naples was forced by the people to grant them a charter. The king of Sardinia took the popular side, and led his forces against the Austrians, who were threatening the Lombardo-Venetian territories, and a republic was established at Rome. The revolution, however, was checked; the kings and dukes repudiated the charters they had granted in the hour of panic, and resumed their ancient tyrannies.

Political Divisions and Population.—The names and populations of the Italian states, with the chief towns, &c., are as follows:—

Names of States.	Area in square miles.	Population.	Form of Government.	Chief Cities.	Population.
Sardinia	29,167	4,650,368	Kingdom	Turin	120,000
Lombardo-Venetian States	17,511	4,803,289	Kingdom	Milan	185,000
				Venice	103,000
Parma	2,274	496,803	Duchy	Parma	36,000
Modena	2,129	513,343	Duchy	Modena	27,000
Tuscany with Lucca	9,177	1,786,875	Grand Duchy	Florence	98,000
Papal States	17,494	2,898,115	Popedom	Rome	150,000
San Marino	21	7,600	Republic	San Marino	5,000
Two Sicilies	41,906	8,423,316	Kingdom	Naples	336,300
Malta, Gozo, &c.	206	130,000	British Dependency	Valetta	60,000
Total	119 885	23,709,709			

Twenty Lire, $3.83.

Sardinia.—The kingdom of Sardinia consists of the principality of Piedmont, with Montserrat, and the Sardinian part of Milan, together with the county of Nice or Nizza, the duchy of Savoy, of Genoa, and the island of Sardinia. The area of the kingdom is 29,000 square miles, of which the island of Sardinia contains about one third. The Sardinian continental territories are bounded by the lake of Geneva and the Pennine Alps on the north, on the east by Venetian-Lombardy and Parma, on the south by the gulf of Genoa, and on the west by France. This state derived its independent existence from the count of Savoy in 1016, under whose descendants it gradually increased until 1416, when it was created a duchy. The subsequent history of this dynasty is closely connected with the struggles of France and Austria for supremacy in Italy. By marriages, wars, acquisitions, and exchanges, through successive centuries, the dominions of the house of Savoy were increased. In 1713, Victor Amadeus II. obtained the island of Sicily, which, in 1720, he exchanged for Sardinia, with the title of king.

Two Livres, 36 cents.

Physical Aspect.—The physical features of this kingdom are very diversified. Savoy is an Alpine country, intersected with mountains. Piedmont, so called from its position, forms a large valley, being separated from Switzerland by the Pennine Alps, and from the coast districts by the maritime Alps and Apennines. It is divided from Savoy by a lofty and broad ridge called the Graian Alps. Nice and Genoa are bounded on the south by the gulf of Genoa, and are both mountainous districts. Genoa extends 150 miles along the gulf, its breadth varying from eight to twelve miles. The southern side of the lake of Geneva belongs to Savoy, and the western side of the Lago Maggiore belongs to Piedmont. The interior of Sardinia is very fertile, the plains producing grain abundantly, and rich pasturage for herds of cattle : the mountains contain mineral wealth.

Chief Towns and Cities.—Turin, the capital of Piedmont, is in longitude 7° 40′ east, and latitude 45° 4′ north. It stands at the foot of a range of hills rising eastward from the Po, and has been appropriately termed, by Lady Morgan, "a little city of palaces." The citadel is a regular pentagon, and is deemed the strongest in Europe. Around Turin artificial irrigation is very successfully and extensively practised. Chambery is the chief town of Savoy. Chamouni is situated in the beautiful valley of the same name, which runs for twenty miles through high mountains. Aosta stands on the Dora Battea, and is famous for a bridge of astonishing height called the Pont d'E. Near the top of Mount Cenis there is a celebrated lake. The capital of Nice is a city and seaport of the same name, standing near the mouth of the Var, beautifully situated, and enjoying a most salubrious climate. Monaco is situated on the gulf of Genoa. The city of Genoa, called, from its marble palaces and splendid edifices, "the Superb," stands on one side of the harbor of the same name. In the middle ages it was a city of great power, possessing a formidable navy, and a large part of the Levant trade. For 200 years Genoa warred with Pisa; and with Venice her struggles were long and violent. In 1174 she possessed Montserrat, Monaco, Nice, Marseilles, a great part of the coast of Provence and Corsica : subsequently she occupied the Crimea, founded colonies in the Black sea and elsewhere, and became a predominant power. Internal dissensions, and the discovery of a passage to India by the cape of Good Hope, led to the downfall of "Genoa the Superb :" she lost her foreign possessions : Corsica, the last of them, revolted in 1730, and was ceded to France in 1768. During the French revolution Genoa was alternately contested for by France and Austria, and, in 1802, Napoleon established Genoa under the title of the Ligurian Re-

CITY AND HARBOR OF GENOA.

public, which, however, he subsequently abolished, and united the country to France. Finally, in 1814–'15, England, contrary to the general expectation, allowed Genoa to become an appanage to the territories of the house of Savoy.

The Island of Sardinia is the largest insular territory in the Mediterranean. It extends from 38° 50, to 41° 14′ north latitude, and is 162 miles in length, with an average breadth of 70 miles. The island has been successively under the dominion of the Romans, Vandals, and Saracens; of Pisa, and of Genoa: in 1324 the house of Aragon obtained possession, and retained it until England conquered the island in 1708. At the peace of Utrecht it was given to Austria; but in 1717 Philip V., of Spain, drove out the Austrians. In 1720 Sardinia was given to the duke of Savoy, as an indemnification for the loss of Sicily. One third of the island is sandy and stony, but rich in mineral treasures; the remainder, where cultivated, fertile in corn, wine, oranges, and citrons.

Venetian Lombardy.—Venetian Lombardy, or Austrian Italy, consists of two distinct states, Venice and Lombardy. It is bounded on the north by Switzerland and the Tyrol, on the east by Illyria and the Adriatic, on the south by the Po, and on the west by the Sardinian states. Its greatest length is 220 miles; its breadth, measured from the Po to Mount Brumer, is 140 miles.

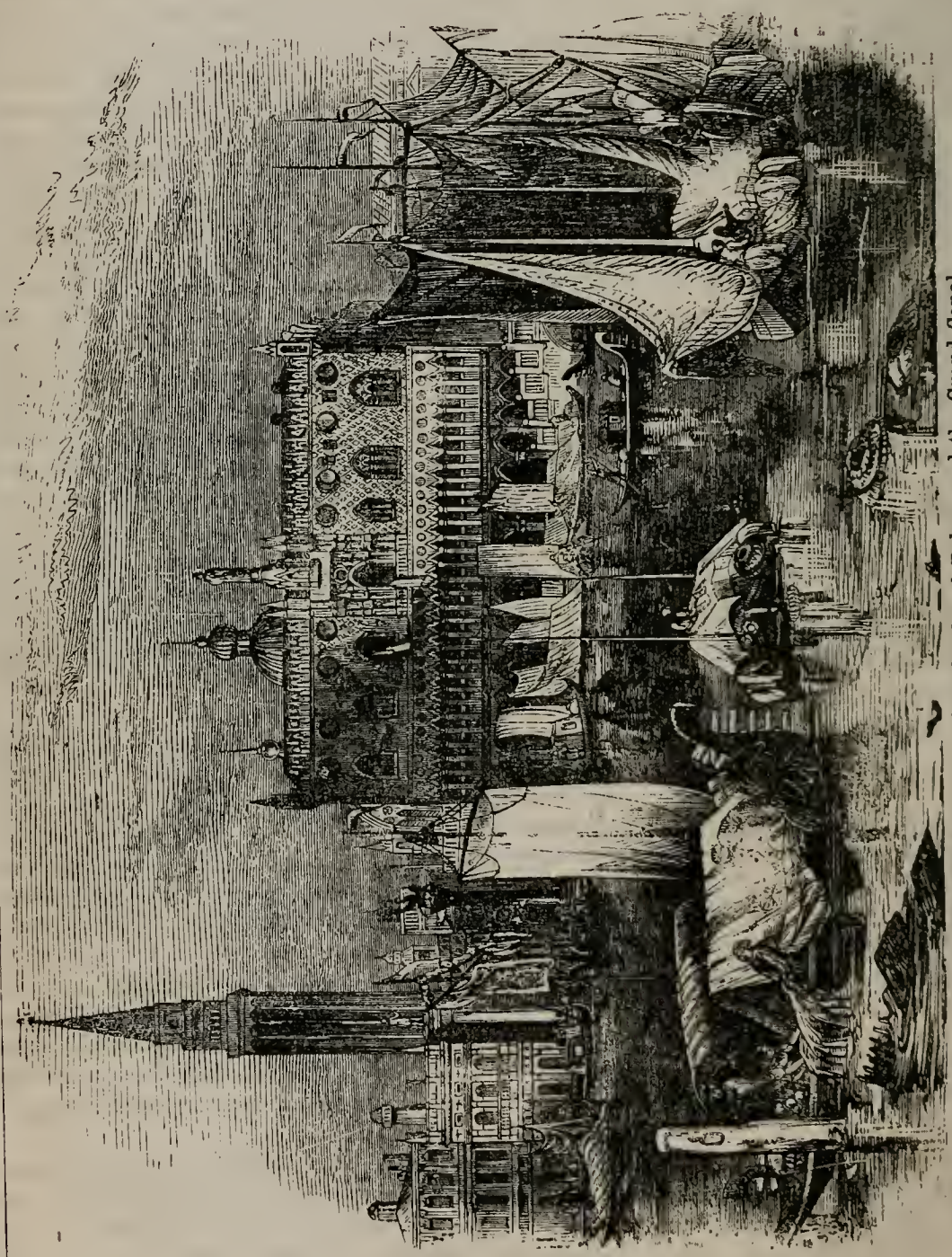
Physical Aspect.—Lombardy is a level and exceedingly fertile country, the natural richness of its soil being increased by the skilful and laborious cultivation bestowed upon it. The pasturage is very extensive; the cheese produced here has been celebrated throughout Europe for centuries under the name of Parmesan. Milan, the seat of government, stands in longitude 9° 12′ east, latitude 45° 28′ north, between the rivers Adda and Tesino. In 1162,

Frederick Barbarossa razed it to the ground ; but it has risen from its ashes, and is now a fine city, containing many sumptuous edifices, especially a noble cathedral, built entirely of white marble. The Milanese province, in which it is situated, is famous for its lakes ; the principal of which are, Lakes Maggiore, Como, and Lugano. In the south, standing on a beautiful hill on the Tesino, is the city of Pavia. Lodi, famous for the victory gained there by Napoleon over the Austrians, stands in the southeast, on the Adda. The provinces of Valteline and Bergamasco occupy the northwest, Bellunese and Friuli the northeast of the kingdom. Brescia, whose chief town was so heroically defended by the chevalier Bayard ; Veronese, Vincentius, and Trevigiano, form the central portion ; Venice, Dugato, and Polisina, the eastern ; and Cremona and Mantua, with part of Milanese, form the southern. The important city of Mantua, in longitude 10° 50 east, latitude 45° 10′ north, stands on an island in the middle of a lake, formed by the Mincio ; and, from its position, is one of the strongest positions in Europe. It has a beautiful cathedral, executed by Giulio Romano : Virgil was born in a village near this city. Venice stands on seventy-two small islands, in a lake about five miles distant from the main land, and separated by other islands from the gulf of Venice. Most of the houses have a door opening upon a canal, and another into a street ; by means of which, and of the bridges, of which there are upward of five hundred, a person may go to any part of the city by land or by water. The grand canal is of great breadth, and passes through the middle of the city. The Rialto consists of a single arch of marble, ninety feet in span, and twenty-four feet in height, thrown across the narrowest part of it. Venice contains some fine buildings, and many specimens of the architecture of Palladio. The bridge of Sighs communicates between the ducal palaces and the stateprisons. Venice has, however, sadly fallen from its former grandeur and magnificence. Its splendid palaces are now converted to purposes of trade, and present everywhere evidences of dilapidation and neglect. The province of Padua is rich and fertile ; its capital, Padua, is a very ancient city.

History.—In 774, Charlemagne united the Lombardian cities to the Frankish empire. In 1183 they obtained their independence. In 1540 Charles V. took possession of Milan, and bestowed it on his son Philip, and it remained in the Spanish line of Hapsburgh until 1700. By the treaties of Utrecht and Baden, 1713–'14, Milan and Mantua were united to the possessions of the house of Austria, and remained so until the battle of Lodi, 1796, when Bonaparte united it with Modena, Bologna, Ferrara, and Romagna, some parts of the former republic of Venice, and some districts of Switzerland, and formed the Cisalpine republic. In 1805 the republic was converted into a kingdom, under Napoleon as king, with his step-son, Eugene Beauharnois, as viceroy. At the congress of Vienna, 1815, Austria obtained possession of the whole of the Lombardian and Venetian territories, which it still retains, notwithstanding the endeavors made by the Italians in 1821, and in 1848–'49, to regain their independence.

Parma.—The duchy of Parma lies between the Po and the Apennines, and has belonged at different times to France, Spain, and the States of the Church. In 1814, Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla, were given to the arch-duchess Maria Louisa, with succession to her son ; and on her death they were bestowed on the duchess of Lucca and her male descendants, failing whom, they pass to Austria and Sardinia.

Physical Aspect.—Parma forms part of the valley of the Po ; the climate is temperate, and the soil rich, producing good pasturage and fine fruits. Piacenza has valuable saline springs. Guastalla is a marshy country, intersected with canals. The capital of Parma is a fortified city of the same name—longitude 10° 30′ east, latitude 44° 50′ north. It has a magnificent cathedral and several



VIEW IN VENICE—Showing the Ducal Palace and the Grand Canal.

fine churches, adorned with the paintings of Coreggio, who was a native of this place.

Modena.—The duchy of Modena is situated on the right bank of the Po, and was formerly a fief of the Austrian empire. It is now in the possession of the house of Este, and reverts, on failure of hereditary descendants, to Austria. It includes the duchies of Reggio and Mirandola. The northern part of the country is level, but on the south it rises toward the Apennines, by which it is bounded. The city of Modena is situated in longitude 11° 12′ east, latitude 44° 35′ north. The town of Reggio was the birthplace of Aristotle. The duchy of Massa Carrara has very picturesque scenery, and is famous for its quarries of pure white marble. The small state of Lucca bought its freedom from the emperor Charles IV. in 1370, and maintained it till 1805, when Napoleon gave it to his sister Elisa. By the treaty of Vienna it was conferred on the Infanta Maria of Spain widow of the late duke of Parma and king of Etruria; in default of male issue, Lucca reverts to the grand duke of Tuscany.

Physical Aspect.—Modena is forty miles long and sixteen broad, bounded on the north by a branch of the Apennines, where the climate is severe, but in the centre of the duchy it is warm and healthy. The mountains are cultivated to the summits, and even the Apennines are not barren here. The chief town has been called "Lucca the industrious."

Sequin, $.10.

Tuscany.—The grand duchy of Tuscany is bounded on the northwest by Lucca and Modena; on the northeast, east, and southeast by the Papal States, and on the southwest and west by the Mediterranean, here called the Tuscan sea. The ancient name of the country was Etruria, which was a confederacy of twelve republics, governed by priests or chiefs, of whom Porsenna was one. After the downfall of the Roman empire, the country passed through the hands of the West Goths, Longobards, Byzantinians, and Franks. From the time of Charlemagne the Margraves became independent. In the beginning of the fifteenth century the Medician family acquired great power, and in 1538, Charles the Fifth erected the "Tuscan fields and hills" into a duchy, in favor of Alexander de Medicis. In 1737 the Medici family became extinct. In 1745 Tuscany was annexed to Austria. In 1790 Ferdinand the Second, son of Leopold, emperor of Austria, was appointed grand duke of Tuscany, but was driven out by the French in 1799, who erected the "Etruscan Commonwealth;" then made it a kingdom, under the name of Etruria, and finally incorporated it with the French empire; Napoleon's sister, the duchess of Lucca, being made grand duchess of Tuscany. On the downfall of Napoleon, in 1814, Ferdinand of Austria was reinstated in the government of the duchy.

Physical Aspect.—The physical features of Tuscany are very striking. The Apennines cover one third of the whole duchy, and with the Arno seem naturally to divide the provinces of Florence, Pisa, and Sienna. The centre of the country forms the extensive and beautiful valley of the Arno, the soil there being rich and well-cultivated. The coast districts are low and marshy, and Sienna is a desolate and flat country, with a sterile soil, and an atmosphere filled with noxious vapors, arising from sulphureous springs: that of Pisa is rendered unhealthy by numerous swamps.

Chief Towns.—Florence, in longitude 11° 3′ east, latitude 43° 46′ north, the capital of the grand duchy, was anciently a Roman colony, and, next to Rome, is the most beautiful city in Italy, containing many magnificent buildings, and valuable collections of books, manuscripts, paintings, and sculpture. It was formerly one of the first manufacturing towns in Italy, and still possesses

some important silk manufactures. It was the birthplace of Dante, Machiavelli, Michael Angelo, Amerigo Vespucci, and many other distinguished men. The city of Pisa, longitude 10° 23′ east, latitude 43° 43′ north, stands on the Arno, surrounded by the swamps of the Serchio; it was the birthplace of the celebrated Galileo. The maritime city of Leghorn is well-fortified, and has an excellent harbor. Sienna, the chief town of the province of that name, is adorned with numberless palaces and fountains, principally built of the fine marble for which the whole duchy is celebrated. The island of Elba, which was given to Napoleon for his sole kingdom in 1814, is only nine miles distant from Tuscany, to which it now belongs. It contains an area of 160 square miles; its principal town is Porto Ferrajo.

Roman Testoon, 28 cts.

The States of the Church.—The Papal states are bounded on the north by Venetian Lombardy, on the east by the Adriatic, on the southeast by the kingdom of Naples, on the southwest by the Mediterranean, and on the west by Tuscany and Modena. Their extreme length is 260 miles; their breadth varies from 20 to 95 miles. They extend along the shore of the Adriatic, from the Po to the Toronto, a line of 175 miles, and 120 on the coast of the Mediterranean. The government is wholly ecclesiastical, no one being eligible to fill any civil office who has not attained the rank of abbot. The pope enacts all laws, and nominates to all clerical appointments. He is assisted, however by the high college of cardinals, comprising about seventy members; and the different branches of the government are conducted each by congregations, with a cardinal at its head.

History.—Rome,* the capital of the Papal States, which had been governed by kings, was given by King Pepin to Stephen II., pope of Rome, in 756, and confirmed by Charlemagne in 774. By the aid of the Normans in Lower Italy, the popes of Rome increased their territory and power, which the Crusades in 1096 served to augment. The oppressions of the popes of Rome caused insurrectionary convulsions in their dominions, and in 1360 the reigning pope was obliged to flee to Avignon, which became the seat of papal power, and remained so until 1378, when it was re-established in Rome, and the temporal and spiritual power of the popes grew rapidly until 1626, when it began to decline. In 1797 Rome was taken by the French, and Pius VI. led away prisoner to France. Pius VII., by the intervention of Austria, resumed possession of Rome in 1800. In 1848, Pius IX. fled in disguise to Gaeta, in the Neapolitan territories, and his subjects then declared the temporal power of the pope at an end,

* Rome, the Eternal City, famous in ancient history as the metropolis of the most powerful nation of antiquity, and in modern as the capital of catholic Christendom, is situated on both sides of the Tiber, but principally on the east. It stood originally on seven hills (three more being afterward enclosed within its walls), and was fifty miles in circumference. The modern city is thirteen miles, but not more than one third of the enclosed area is covered with buildings; the remainder is occupied with ruins, gardens, churches, convents, &c. The city has sixteen gates, the four principal ones are, the Porto del Popolo, the Porta Pia, the Porto Maggiore, and the Porta San Giovanni. There are innumerable churches, seven of which are styled cathedrals. Of these, St. Peter's is the most noble building ever constructed. It is built in the form of a Latin cross, 730 feet in length, 520 in breadth, and 450 in height, covered within and without of the finest marble. It was begun in 1506, and completed in 1620: the great merit of the work, as a specimen of architecture, belongs to Michael Angelo. The interior is decorated with mosaics and pictures, forming a display of brilliant and unexampled magnificence. In front of the church is a fine piazza, of a double colonnade, with an Egyptian obelisk in the centre. Among the palaces, the Vatican, the winter residence of the pope, on the Vatican hill, is most conspicuous. It covers a space of 1,200 feet in length by 1,000 in breadth, and contains nearly 4,000 apartments, filled with a countless number of statues, busts, urns, vases, medals, coins, paintings, books, manuscripts, drawings, &c., which have been collecting for thousands of years, and forming the most complete museum in the world. The Quirinal, the summer residence of the pope, is a superb palace on a hill of the same name, with a fine garden attached a mile in circuit. The Pantheon, one of the ancient temples, yet remains, stripped of its external ornaments, and disfigured by the Vandalism of modern times. It is a perfect circle, 180 feet in diameter, admirably proportioned with a portico 110 feet in length by 44 feet deep, supported by sixteen Corinthian columns of white marble. The august ruins of the Colosseum, a vast amphitheatre of elliptical form, covers over five acres; the seats rise tier above tier from the wall around the area nearly to the top, 180 feet, and would seat over 80,000 spectators. The ruins of the forum, the capital, the Trajan column, the arch of Constantine, and many other objects of a former age, which stand in contrast with the present state of the city, excite the deepest interest in the future welfare of this once mighty, but now degraded metropolis of the world.

and proclaimed a republic. At this critical period the French republic sent a large army against its sister republic, which was crushed, and the pope restored. It is now under the protection of soldiers of Austria and France.

POPES OF ROME.

In 591 the bishop of Constantinople assumed the title of universal bishop of the church. In 606 the head of the Roman catholic church at Rome, who had previously been designated simply as bishop, was made, by Phocas the king, supreme head of the church, with the title of universal bishop or pope. The temporal sovereignty was added to the ecclesiastical in 756.

Boniface III	606	Theodore II	898	Innocent II	1130	Paul II	1464
Boniface IV	608	John IX	898	Celestine II	1143	Sixtus IV	1471
Deusdedit	615	Benedict IV	900	Lucius II	1144	Innocent VIII	1484
Boniface V	619	Leo V	903	Eugenius III	1145	Alexander VI	1492
Honorius	625	Christopher	903	Anastasius IV	1153	Julius II	1503
Severinus	638	Sergius III	904	Adrian IV	1154	Leo X	1513
John IV	640	Anastatius III	911	Alexander III	1159	Adrian VI	1522
Theodore	642	Lando	913	Lucius III	1181	Clement VII	1523
Martin	649	John X	914	Urban III	1185	Paul III	1534
Eugenius	656	Leo VI	929	Gregory VIII	1187	Julius III	1550
Vitalianus	657	Stephen VII	929	Clement III	1188	Marcellus II	1555
Adeodatus	672	Leo VII	936	Celestine III	1191	Paul IV	1555
Donus	676	Stephen VIII	939	Innocent III	1198	Pius IV	1560
Agatho	678	Marinus II	942	Honorius III	1216	Pius V	1566
Leo II	682	Agapetus II	946	Gregory IX	1227	Gregory XIII	1572
Benedict II	684	John XII	956	Celestine IV	1241	Sixtus V	1585
John V	685	Leo VIII	963	Innocent IV	1243	Urban VII	1590
Conon	686	John XIII	965	Alexander IV	1254	Gregory XIV	1590
Sergius	687	Benedict VI	972	Urban IV	1261	Innocent IX	1591
John VI	701	Donus II	974	Clement IX	1265	Clement VIII	1592
John VII	715	Benedict VII	975	Gregory X	1268	Leo XI	1606
Sisinnius	708	John XIV	984	Innocent V	1276	Paul V	1606
Constantine	708	John XV	985	Adrian V	1276	Gregory XV	1621
Gregory II	715	Gregory V	996	Nicholas III	1277	Urban VIII	1623
Gregory III	732	Silvester II	999	Martin IV	1280	Innocent X	1644
Zachary	741	John XVII	1003	Honorius IV	1285	Alexander VII	1655
Stephen II	752	John XVIII	1003	Nicholas IV	1288	Clement IX	1667
Paul	757	Sergius IV	1009	Celestine V	1292	Clement X	1670
Stephen III	767	Benedict VIII	1012	Boniface VIII	1294	Innocent XI	1676
Adrian	772	John XIX	1024	Benedict XI	1303	Alexander VIII	1689
Leo III	795	Benedict IX	1033	Clement V	1304	Innocent XII	1692
Paschal	817	Gregory VI	1045	John XXII	1314	Clement XI	1700
Eugenius II	824	Clement VI	1046	Benedict XII	1334	Benedict XIII	1724
Valentine	827	Damasus II	1047	Clement VI	1342	Clement XII	1730
Gregory IV	828	Leo IX	1048	Innocent VI	1352	Benedict XIV	1740
Sergius II	844	Victor II	1055	Urban V	1362	Clement XIII	1758
Benedict III	855	Stephen IX	1057	Gregory XI	1371	Clement XIV	1769
Nicholas	858	Benedict X	1058	Boniface IX	1389	Pius VI	1774
Adrian II	867	Nicholas II	1058	Innocent VII	1404	Pius VII	1800
John VIII	872	Alexander II	1061	Gregory XII	1406	Leo XII	1822
Marinus	882	Gregory VII	1073	Alexander V	1409	Pius VIII	1829
Adrian III	884	Victor III	1086	John XXIII	1410	Gregory XVI	1831
Stephen V	885	Urban II	1088	Martin V	1417	Pius IX	1846
Formosus	891	Paschal II	1099	Eugenius IV	1431		
Boniface VI	896	Gelasius II	1118	Nicholas V	1447		
Stephen VI	896	Calixtus II	1119	Calixtus III	1455		
Romanus	897	Honorius II	1124	Pius II	1458		

Physical Aspect.—The physical features of the Papal States are peculiar. They include many high and barren ridges, large and fertile valleys, some arid plains, and but few trees. The climate generally is mild, though the Apennines are covered with snow from October to April. Along the coast are many swamps, and the volcanic soil occasionally sends forth unwholesome exhalations. To the east of the Campagna di Roma stands Frosinone, the chief town; and in the south is the forest of Terracina. Sabina is a wild and mountainous country, containing many extinguished volcanoes; Rieta is its chief town. Patrimonio di St. Pietro contains some high mountains, which surround the lake of Bolsena, and several enormous forests. Its principal towns, Viterbo, Civita, Vecchia; the latter has a good harbor. The principal town in Orviepano is Orvieto, where good wine is made. The Apennines run through Umbria, the capital of which is Spoleto; Terni was the birthplace of Tacitus. Perugino is a mountainous district; Perugia, its chief town, is situated in a fertile valley, between the Tiger and the lake of Perugia. The Apennines surround Camerino on the south and west, the chief place is Camerino. Fermo has a town and seaport of the same name. Ascoli conducts a considerable trade; its port is situated at the mouth of the Tronto. Ancona has a chief

town of the same name, on the declivity of a hill, defended by a strong fortress, and possessed of a good harbor. Loretto has a large church, which contains the famous "Santa Casa di Loretto." Urbino has a chief town of the same name, which was the birthplace of Raphael. Pisano, at the mouth of the Foglia, has a small harbor. Ombria is half covered with mountains. Romagna has been considered the storehouse of Italy. Ravenna is one of the most celebrated of the Italian cities; several of the emperors resided there. Forli, Rimini, and Faenza, are towns of some importance. The Bolognese is intersected by several canals; Bologna, its principal city, is said to be the most ancient in Europe, having been founded by Theodosius in 425. The sausages of Bologna are sent all over the world. The Ferrarese comprehends the greater part of the former duchy of Ferrara, of which thé house of Este had the triariate as early as the ninth century. Ferrara, its chief town, is built on the Po, and was the birthplace of Guarini, and Guido Bentivoglio. There also is the prison in which Tasso languished for seven years.

San Marino.—The republic of San Marino, though the smallest in Europe, its surface being only twenty-one square miles, and surrounded by the worst forms of despotism, has constantly maintained its independence, though perhaps more in consequence of the insignificance of their territory, than from any native pre-eminence in wisdom and valor. Its territories consist of a high craggy mountain, with a few eminences at the bottom. It has neither public debt nor standing army. The town of San Marino lies on the summit of a mountain, where the hermitage of its founder, Marinus, stood, a single narrow path leading up to it. Its population is about 5,000. At the foot of the hill is the village of Borgo, in which many of the wealthy Marinos reside.

Corsica.—The island of Corsica lies in the Mediterranean, and is separated from Sardinia by the straits of Bonifacio; it stands between 41° and 43° north latitude, and 8° and 10° east longitude, its greatest length, from Cape Corso to Bonifacio, being 116 miles, and its extreme breadth 54 miles. It is traversed from north to south by a chain of mountains, the loftier summits being for the most part covered with snow. In 1706, when it came under the dominion of France, 14,140 square miles of its surface were covered with forests. Manufactures are still in a very imperfect state; and the commerce of the island consists chiefly in the exportation of coral, which abounds on the coast. The principal towns are, Ajaccio, Bastia, St. Fiorenza, Caloi, Isola, Rosa, and Porto Vecchio.

The Two Sicilies.—The Two Sicilies comprise the kingdom of Naples and the island of Sicily. Naples is bounded on the north and northwest by the Papal States and the Adriatic, and on the southeast and west by the Mediterranean. Its length, measuring from the mouth of the Tronto to Cape Spartivento, is 360 miles, and its breadth varies from 20 to 120 miles. Its area is estimated at 31,400 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The Apennine ridge, which passes from north to south, and sends out spurs toward the gulf of Venice on the one side, and the Mediterranean on the other, forms the principal feature of the kingdom of Naples. Their structure is granite and gneiss, and on the northwest coast basalt and volcanic tufa. There are four volcanoes in the Two Sicilies, viz.: Vesuvius, on the continent; Etna, in Sicily; Stromboli, on one of the Æolian or Lipari islands, where also is situated Volcano island, where one or two craters exist. Mount Maccaluba, in Sicily, ejects cold mud and clay, accompanied by a subterranean noise; there is also a wind volcano in Sicily, the Dinnamare, or Scuderio, of Peloro.

CITY AND HARBOR OF NAPLES, WITH MOUNT VESUVIUS.

Bays, Rivers, and Lakes.—The bays are numerous and considerable; the principal are those of Taranto, Naples, Gaeta, Salerno, Policastro, Euphemia, and Squillace. All the rivers descend from the Apennines, and have consequently but a short course. The lakes are numerous, but small, excepting Lake Celano, which is fifteen miles long and nine broad.

Political Divisions.—Naples is divided into twelve provinces:—1st. Terra di Lavoro, wherein is situated Naples,* the capital of Southern Italy, anciently called Parthenope, which stands on the bay of Naples, in latitude 40° 50′ north, longitude 14° 15′ east. 2d. Principatra Citra, anciently Lucania, very mountainous; chief town, Salerno (population, 12,000), on the gulf of that name. Amalfi (population, 3,000) was the birthplace of Masaniello. 3d. Principata Ultra (population, 420,000); the Apennines pass through this province; capital, Benevento, contains extensive ruins of ancient architecture, among others the famous triumphal arch of Trajan, erected in 114. Avellino (population, 15,000) stands at the foot of Mount Vergine. 4th. Sanneo or Molise, the ancient country of the Samnites (population, 250,000), is bounded on one side by the chain

*The city of Naples is built in a semi-circular form, sloping from the lofty mountains which shelter it, toward the sea, and is defended by six strong castles, and an excellent mole or jetty. There are 300 churches, many of them rich in ornaments and jewels: the cathedral is dedicated to St. Januarias, the patron saint of the city. The bay of Naples is exceedingly beautiful, nearly thirty miles in extent, shut out from the Mediterranean by Capri island, and three fourths of it surrounded by woods and mountains. Naples is the wealthiest and best populated city in Italy, its chief drawback being its vicinity to the mighty volcano, Mount Vesuvius, by whose eruption, in 79, Herculaneum and Pompeii were destroyed. The principal eruptions were in 203, 472, 512, 685, 993, 1036, 1631, 1730, 1760, 1779, and for the last two centuries they have been of almost yearly occurrence. Notwithstanding their devastating effects the foot of the mountain is populous, and its sides well-cultivated; at the summit is a large plain, in the centre of which is situated the crater from which rises a continual smoke. Capua is a fine town, the country around very level; the volcanic soil abounds with natural steam baths and sulphureous lakes: it contains the famed Grotto del Cane, and other remarkable caves.

of Matese, the summits of which are constantly covered with snow ; chief town, Campobasso (population, 10,000). 5th. Abruzzo Ultra, an inland mountainous province (population, 260,000), containing the largest inland lake of the kingdom, Lake Celano ; chief towns, Aquila (population, 8,000), Teramo, and Alba Celano. 6th. Abruzzo Citra, is divided from Abruzzo Ultra by the river Pescara, and intersected by two branches of the Apennines (population, 180,000) ; capital, Chieti (population, 13,000). 7th. Capitanata (population, 300,000), has a large promontory formed by the branches of the Gargano mountains, a long and isolated ridge, crowned with forests. The olive-trees grow to a remarkable size, and the oil of Monte Gargano is celebrated ; capital, Foggia, on the Cervaro, was destroyed by an earthquake in 1732, but rebuilt (population, 22,000). 8th. Terra di Berri, on the coast, is well-cultivated, produces much wine, and manufactures from the lagunes, large quantities of salt for exportation (population, 400,000) ; capital, Bari, a well-fortified seaport. 9th. Terra di Otranto forms the "heel of the boot" of Italy ; a long chain of the Apennines stretches through it from the west almost to Cape Leuca (population, 340,000) ; capital, the fine city of Leuca (population, 15,000) ; Taranto stands in the bay of Taranto ; the venomous spider called the Tarantula is found here, and takes its name from this city. 10th. Basilicata is barren and miserably cultivated ; the inhabitants sustain life chiefly on Indian corn and other vegetables ; capital, Potenza (population, 9,000). 11th. Calabria Citra is famous for wine and oil (population, 390,000) ; capital, Cosenza, situated in a delightful valley. 12th. Calabria Ultra (population, 550,000) ; the Apennines pass from Calabria Citra through this province, and extend to its southern extremity ; capital, Cantanzaro, on the gulf of Squillace ; the ancient town of Scylla, now called Sciglio, is situated in a terrific-looking ravine, fronting the straits of Messina, at the north entrance of which are the whirlpools of Scylla and Charybdis. The town of Nicastro is embosomed amid orange and olive-groves ; this beautifnl province has suffered severely from repeated earthquakes, especially that of 1783, by which many towns were destroyed, and, according to Sir William Hamilton, upward of 40,000 human beings perished.

Island of Sicily.—The island of Sicily, anciently called Trinakria, from its triangular form, extends from 12° 45′ to 16° 10′ east longitude, and from 35° 40′ to 38° 15′ north latitude. It is separated from the Italian peninsula by the straits of Messina, which are five miles broad. The northern side of the triangle is 215 miles in length ; the southwestern or African side, measuring from Cape Boco to Cape Bassaro, 180 miles, and the eastern side, fronting Greece, 120 miles. According to an official survey, made by Captain Smyth, the area is about 10,500 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—Sicily seems to have been first separated from Naples by some convulsion of the earth, and gradually isolated by the encroachments of the sea. The Apennines appear to pass into it under the sea from Calabria, and then to divide into two branches, from which several smaller ridges stretch into the land. Etna or Monte Gibello, does not belong to any of these, but is an entirely insulated truncated cone, which rises to a height of 10,954 feet, and requires three days for its ascent from Catania, which is distant thirty miles from its summit. The country around is divided into the torrid, temperate, and frigid zones, each characterized by the most beautiful, wild, and grand scenery. A forest of oaks and pines form an evergreen girdle round the middle of the mountain.

Political Divisions.—Sicily is divided into three provinces, Vald di Mazzara, Val di Dimone, and Val di Noto, and has been subdivided into seven provinces or intendencies, viz. : Palermo, Messina, Catania, Syracuse, Caltanicetta, and Gergenti. In Val di Mazzara is situated Palermo, the capital of the island, in latitude 38° 12′ north, longitude 13° 34′ east. It stands on a small bay of

the same name, near the extremity of a kind of natural amphitheatre formed by high mountains. The public buildings are numerous, some of them very beautiful. There are many churches; that of St. Guisippo has marble columns sixty feet high; and the magnificent cathedral, dedicated to Santa Rosalia, is supported by eighty columns of oriental granite. The two principal streets, which cross each other, are very fine. There is a university, seventy-one convents, and eight abbeys. Population, 180,000. Trapani is a fine town, with a good harbor; corals are fished there. The once famous city of Gergenti is now little better than a dirty village, although possessed of good climate, fertile soil, and the only harbor on the south coast of Sicily. Population, 14,000. Caltanicetta is situated in a large and fertile plain. Population, 15,000. Alicata is a coast town, on the mouth of the Salso, whence much corn is exported, although it has no harbor. Sciacca stands on a rock near Cape St. Marco, and was noted in the time of the Romans for warm baths. Marsala, a town near Cape Boco, in famous for the wine of that name. Val di Dimone is a very mountainous district. Messina, the capital, in latitude 38° 10 north, longitude 15° 56′ east, stands on the strait of Messina, at the foot of the Neptunian mountains. It is the first commercial town of the kingdom, and possesses a harbor which would contain 4,000 ships. The inhabitants are still repairing the ravages of the earthquake of 1783. Bronte, a town to the west of Mount Etna, gives the title of the dukedom conferred upon Lord Nelson. Catania, the ancient Catana, in latitude 37° 28′ north, longitude 15° 17′ east, was founded seven centuries before Christ. It has a fine university, and spacious streets paved with lava. The surrounding country is considered the richest in Sicily. Population, 45,000. Val di Noto comprises the southeast part of the island. Syracuse, the chief town, lies on an island, and occupies part of the site of the ancient Syracuse, which contained 1,000,000 inhabitants; its population at present is about 15,000. It was the birthplace of Archimedes and Theocritus. Among the most remarkable antiquities are, the fountain of Arethusa, the ear of Dionysius (a grotto with a strong echo), and the amphitheatre. Modica is a fine town, near which are some famous lakes. Population, 14,000. The neighborhood of Ragusa is noted for honey, and possesses a quarry of bituminous stone.

Climate.—The climate of the Two Sicilies is the warmest in Europe. The Sirocco or African wind often prevails, and destroys vegetation.

Productive Resources.—Grain, wine, and oil, silk and fruits in abundance. Sicily yields sulphur.

Education.—There are three universities in the Two Sicilies, viz., at Naples, Palermo, and Catania; but few means of public instruction exists for the poor. The religion is Roman catholic.

Forty Lire, $7.60.

History.—Naples comprehends the countries formerly called Samnium, Apulia, and Magna Grecia, and was originally colonized by some Grecian tribes. In 481 B. C. the whole of Southern Italy fell into the hands of the Romans. After the dissolution of the Roman empire Naples was seized by the Ostrogoths, and Sicily by the Vandals. In 554, these countries were conquered by the Greeks, and incorporated in the exarchate of Ravenna. Taking advantage of the weakness of the exarchs, Naples, Benevento, Salerno, Capua and Taranto, gradually became independent states. In 828, the Saracens wrested Sicily from the Greeks, and retained possession of it until the middle of the eleventh century, when they were expelled by the Normans, who reunited it with Naples, which they had likewise subjugated. In 1130, Roger II. was named, by the pope, king of Naples and Sicily, or the Two Sicilies. Roger's male line becoming extinct, the crown devolved upon Henry VI., emperor of Germany, through his marriage with the Norman princes, Constantia.

This dynasty continued until the death of Conrad IV., 1254, when the pope, during the minority of the legitimate heir, bestowed the crown on Charles of Anjou, brother to the French king, who took the young Conradin prisoner and put him to death. Sicily freed herself from French dominion, by the atrocious massacre, known to posterity as the Sicilian vespers of 1282; but Naples continued to acknowledge the line of Anjou, until it expired in the infamous queen Joanna, who was murdered by Charles of Durazzo, her successor. The Two Sicilies remained divided until the reign of Charles V., who inherited both crowns, and the reunited kingdom continued for two centuries a Spanish province notwithstanding the struggles of the Sicilians, who, in the celebrated insurrection of Masaniello, nearly succeeded in subverting the government. By the treaty of Utrecht, in 1714, Naples was given to Austria, and Sicily to the house of Savoy, but shortly after Austria gave Sardinia to Savoy, and received Sicily in exchange. In 1733 the Two Sicilies were again conquered by Spain, and given to the Spanish infant, Don Carlos, who, on inheriting the Spanish throne, in 1759, bestowed them on his third son, Ferdinand, under the condition of their never being annexed to the Spanish crown. The French revolution led Ferdinand into a war with France, and he was compelled to retire to Sicily. In 1799 the French troops were driven from Naples, and Ferdinand returned. In 1805 a treaty of neutrality was concluded between Naples and France, but two months after, Napoleon, on pretence of its having been broken by Ferdinand, declared the reigning dynasty at an end, and named his brother Joseph king of Naples, who resigned in 1808, to take the kingdom of Spain, and the crown was transferred to Murat, his brother-in-law. Ferdinand again retired to Sicily, where he remained under the protection of the English until 1815, when he returned to Naples. He died in 1825, and was succeeded by his son Francis. Ferdinand II., the present king, ascended the throne in 1830. In 1847 an extensive revolution occurred, a constitution was granted the people, and Sicily declared itself independent. But the king subdued his subjects, revoked the privileges he had granted, and it is now, as it long has been, one of the worst governments in Europe.

Ten pauls of Tuscany, 97 cents.

Scudo, 93 cents.

Twenty grani, 15 cents.

Two pauls, 18 cents.

Twenty grani, 15 cents.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN THE MEDITERRANEAN.

Gibraltar.—Gibraltar (briefly noticed in the description of Spain), is a well-known promontory or peninsula, three miles long, and seven miles in circumference, situate in 36° 9′ north latitude, and 5° 21′ east longitude, and forms the southern part of the continent of Europe. It is the key to the Mediterranean, and is not the least remarkable possession of the British crown.

Physical Aspect.—Gibraltar mountain or promontory (forming with that of Ceuta, upon the opposite coast of Barbary, the narrow channel which connects the Atlantic ocean with the Mediterranean) is of an oblong form, in a direction from north to south three miles, a breadth nowhere exceeding three quarters of a mile, and with a circumference of about seven miles. The summit is a sharp, craggy ridge, running from north to south, the greatest elevation being to the southward, where Sugar-Loaf Point rises to 1,439 feet above the sea level. The northern point is connected with the main land, and is perfectly perpendicular, except toward the northwest, where what are called the "lines" intervene, and a narrow passage of flat ground that leads to the low, flat, sandy isthmus or neutral ground, 1,000 yards wide, and the greatest height of which, above the level of the sea, does not exceed ten feet. Gibraltar bay, situate on the west side of the mountain, is nearly eight miles and a half long, and in breadth upward of five miles; the circumference being thirty to forty miles. In 1783, the total number of guns serviceable in the garrison consisted of 663 pieces of artillery. There are now more than 1,000 guns mounted. The streets of Gibraltar are well-paved, lighted, and cleansed, and extensive improvements are daily going on. Many of the narrow streets have been widened, several alleys entirely removed, and free ventilation promoted by all possible means.

Climate.—The Andalusian atmosphere has long been celebrated for its salubrity, and with some exceptions, of late years the climate of Gibraltar is decidedly healthy, except for hard-drinkers and phlegmatic constitutions. The temperature is warm. Snow rarely falls, and ice is seen no thicker than a dollar; but the winds and the rain affect more acutely the animal frame than the solar heat.

Population.—In 1791, 2,885; in 1852, about 12,000, but very fluctuating in amount. The inhabitants are of many nations—English, Spaniards, Moorish, Italian, Greek, &c. There are several churches and chapels. The schools are good, and there is a valuable garrison library.

History.—Whether the Phœnician navigators, Carthaginian merchants, or Roman conquerors, ever settled on the "Rock," does not appear; and it is probable that the natural strength of the position was first noticed in the beginning of the eighth century, when the Saracens and Moors invaded and made themselves masters of Spain. In 1462 Gibraltar was recaptured from the Moors, who had retained possession of the fortress for 748 years. In 1704, when Sir George Rooke was sent into the Mediterranean with a large fleet to assist Charles archduke of Austria in recovering the crown of Spain, it was resolved to attempt the conquest of Gibraltar, which was accomplished, and Gibraltar has ever since continued in the hands of the English.

Malta and Gozo.—Malta, with its adjacent island of Gozo, is situated between Sicily and the African coast, in the mouth of the great bay formed by Cape Bon and Cape Razat, in 35° 34′ north latitude, and 14° 34′ east longitude, and is the most southerly island in Europe. Valetta is the capital. It was known 1800 years ago, under the name of Melite or Melita, Pliny and Strabo both mentioning it under this denomination, and there is no doubt

that Melita, and not an islet on the Illyrian shore of the Adriatic, was the site of St. Paul's shipwreck. It appears to have been at successive periods in the possession of the Phœnicians, Carthaginians, Greeks, Romans, Arabs, knights of St. John, and French; the latter were driven out by the English and Maltese in 1800, and the island has since been occupied by the English.

Physical Aspect.—Malta was formerly placed by all geographers in Africa, but was declared to be in Europe, as regards the service of soldiery, by a British act of parliament. The shape is an irregular oval, which has been compared by some to a fish. The island, in fact, stretches east and west, and is much indented with bays and inlets of the sea on the side which corresponds with the coast of Sicily, while that which looks toward the African coast is nearly a continual curve. The extreme length of the island is about eighteen miles, and its greatest breadth, from north to south, ten miles, and its circumference from sixty to seventy miles. Cape Bon, the nearest point of the African continent, is almost 200 miles distant in a southwesterly direction. Malta, comparatively speaking, is low, the highest land being no more than 1,200 feet above the level of the sea, and can not be discerned until the mariner approaches within twenty to thirty miles of the shore. The hill and dale surface is beautifully diversified, and the natural industry of the Maltese has converted an apparently barren rock into a very picturesque country. As a general feature, it may be observed, that the island is furrowed with valleys running from southwest to northeast, parallel to each other, and becoming longer and deeper as they extend from the eastern and western extremity. The southern shore consists of high or shelving rocks, without creeks or ports, or where a landing could be effected. To the east there is the port of Marsa Scala, and toward the southwest that of Marsa Sirocco, capable of containing a great number of vessels. On the west there are two bays, called Antifaga and Magiarro. The port of St. Paul is on the coast opposite Sicily, and is so called from a tradition that the vessel in which St. Paul was sent prisoner to Rome was driven in thither by a storm. St. George's port, toward the north, is not far distant from that of St. Paul; St. Julian's bay is on the same shore. Gozo (pronounced Godso), the island adjacent to Malta, and under the same government, is situated to the westward of that island, distant thence in its nearest point about three miles, though some parts of the strait is five miles broad. Gozo is ten miles in length, five in breadth, with an area of twenty-seven square miles. It contains no town, the inhabitants being scattered in six villages, protected by a strong fort, Robato, in the centre of the island. The surface of the island is very agreeably diversified with hill and dale, some of the more elevated parts in the northwest being nearly 2,000 feet above the sea. A chain of these elevations encircle the island, embracing a beautiful series of fertile valleys, separated by gently rising grounds; the summits of some of the mountains are flattened, and form truly table-lands; others are rounded or mamillary; and there are four or five remarkably detached hills, perfectly conical in shape.

Population.—The population is about 120,000 in Malta and in Gozo. The Maltese are generally of middle stature, with robust frames, and small hands and feet; the hair black, and sometimes inclined to frizzle; lips frequently thick, and skin swarthy among the common people where exposed to the atmosphere; the hair dark and bright, and, among the higher classes of females, of a remarkable fullness.

Ionian Islands.—The septinsular union of the Ionian isles is situate in the Ionian sea, between 36° and 40° south latitude, and 20° and 23° east longitude, extending from the Albanian coast to the southern extremity of the Morean peninsula. The islands would appear to have been early colonized, remained for many years as separate states, were partly in the possession of

Corinth, next in alliance with the Greeks, then with Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, during his invasions of Italy; subsequently Rome gave law to all the little Grecian republics; and on the fall of the eastern empire, the Venetian republic afforded protection to, and claimed the sovereignty of the islands. By a secret agreement between Alexander and Napoleon, who had then his eyes on Turkey, the islands passed under the dominion of the latter. During the continental war, England took possession of several of the islands, and expelled the French, and at the peace of 1815, the septinsular union was placed under the protection of Great Britain, with whom they have since remained. The seat of government of the septinsular union is located at Corfu, in the parallel of 32° 30′ north latitude, and the meridian of 19° 50′ east longitude, a little to the eastward of the mouth of the Adriatic. On the south and west it is bounded by the Mediterranean, and on the north and east by the channel which separates it from Albania, or the ancient Epirus. The length of the island of Corfu is about thirty-five miles; its breadth, at the northeastern extremity, about 12 miles; whence it gradually lessens until it terminates in its most southerly point, or Cape Bianco. The aspect of Corfu is decidedly mountainous, particularly toward the Mediterranean, the part opposite the Albanian coast being of less elevation, and presenting a hilly and sloping country. A chain of mountains runs throughout the whole length of the island from north to south, the highest point, Santa Dacca, being estimated at 2,000 feet above the sea; another range runs from east to west across the island, appearing like a continuation of the Albanian or Acroceraunian range, prolonged from Corfu to the mainland.

Cephalonia, although second in rank to Corfu, is the largest of the islands composing the septinsular union. It is situated in 38° 27′ north latitude, 20° 32′ east longitude, having Santa Maura about six miles to the northward, Zante eight miles to the southward, and the west coast of the Morea twenty-four miles distant. The area is 348 square miles, the extreme length thirty-two, extreme breadth, eighteen, and the circumference, following the coast, 150 miles. Cephalonia is extremely rugged and mountainous. The general direction of the mountains is from south to north. At the southern extremity of the range, or opposite to the coast of Zante, is the highest mountain in the Ionian islands, the mountain Ænos of antiquity, the modern Black mountain, or Montagna Negra, 3,625 feet above the level of the sea.

Zante, ten miles distant from Cephalonia, has an area of 156 square miles. From its exquisite beauty, this island is by common consent called "Zante, il fiore di Levante." The aspect is decidedly mountainous, and occupying three fifths of the island, the elevation varying from 500 to 1,300 feet above the sea. The city is very imposing in its appearance, when viewed from the sea.

The other Ionian islands are, Ithaca, Santa Maura, Paxo, and Cerigo. The area of the whole seven isles is 1,097 square miles, the population about 220,000, their language and religion that of the Greeks; and the staple products of their soil consist chiefly of currants, silk, wine, fruits, olives, and grain.

Crete.—Crete (called also Candia, from its principal port) is a celebrated island of the Mediterranean, belonging to the Grecian Archipelago, of which it forms the southern boundary. Its length from east to west is about 160 miles, with a breadth varying from six to fifty miles. Its area is about 3,200 square miles, with a population of 160,000, of whom 100,000 are native Greeks, 44,000 Turks, and the remainder Hellenes, Jews, &c. Crete is almost wholly covered with mountain ranges, which abound with grottoes and caverns, some of which are extensive and celebrated. The country is generally healthy, and subject to few epidemic diseases. The chief products are oil, silk, wine, raisins, wool, oranges, lemons, wax, honey, linseed, and almonds. The island at present belongs to the viceroy or sovereign of Egypt.

GREECE.

Five drachmi, 80 cents.

The modern kingdom of Greece, as settled by the European protocol, of the 3d of February, 1830, and subsequently by another frontier line, extends from the gulf of Arta to the gulf of Volo, or from 20° 40′ to 26° 30′ east longitude, and from 36° 15′ to 39° 10′ north latitude; the Othrys chain of mountains forming the northern boundary, and the Mediterranean the eastern, southern, and western. The country is so much intersected by gulfs and inlets of the sea, that it is difficult to state the land area; the best estimate is that of Mr. M'Gregor, who considers that modern Greece, comprising the whole of the peninsula of the Morea (the ancient Peloponnesus), the island of Negropont (formerly Egrito or Eubœa), continental Negropont (or the ancient Attica), Lepanto, and the whole region called Livadia, the Cyclades, and Sporades, contain about 18,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—Ridges of mountains and isolated peaks capped with snow, table-lands, fertile valleys, numerous rivulets or streams, inlets of the sea and harbors on every part of the coast, which is studded with islands, constitute the principal features. Half the surface is composed of mountains, and not two fifths of the country is capable of cultivation. Bare of wood, devoid of enclosures, and with few indications of long-organized agricultural progress, the aspect is dreary and desolate, presenting the traces of a country once thickly peopled and highly cultivated; but in picturesque scenery it is superior to every part of Europe. The famed Mount Parnassus is a peak of the Pindaric chain; Mount Helicon is separated from Parnassus by the plain of Livadia; its graceful form and beautiful slopes, induced the Grecian poets to suppose it a fitting abode for the muses. The "Aonian bower" still preserves its picturesque beauty, and the fountain "Hippocrene," fabled to have been struck from the earth by the hoof of Pegasus, is distant two and a half miles from it.

Rivers, Gulfs, &c.—The rivers are small. Those worthy of note, from their historical associations, are the Iris (known in ancient history as the Eurotas), and the Rofia (anciently the Alpheus), in the Morea; and the Aspro Potamos (formerly the Achelous), the Hellada (anciently the Sperchius), and the Mauro Potamos (the ancient Cephissus). On the western coast are the gulfs of Arta (Ambracian gulf), of Patras, and of Lepanto (Corinthian gulf); on the south are the gulfs of Coron (Messenian), and Colokythia (Laconian); on the east are the gulfs of Napoli (Argolic), Ægina (Saronic), and Volo (Pelasgic). The gulfs of Lepanto and Ægina, penetrating far inland, form the peninsula of the Morea, which is connected with the main land by the isthmus of Corinth. The strait of Eubœa (Euripus) separates the island of Negropont from the main land.

Islands.—The islands of Greece lie principally in the Archipelago. The more important of them are, Eubœa or Negropont, Hydra, Spezzia, Poros, Ægina, Augistra, Salamis, Scopelos, Helidromia, Sciathos, Scyros, Syra, Tinos, Miconos, Cea, Thermia, Naxos, Paros and Antiparos, Siphnos, Seriphos, Cimolos, Milo, Polycandros, Sicinos, Ios, Amorgos, Santorin, Anaphe, and Astypalœa.

Climate.—The summer is long, and extremely hot; the winter short, but severe. The range of the thermometer is from 28° to 104° Fahrenheit; mean amount of temperature 64°.

Chief Cities.—Modern Athens is built on a part of the site of the ancient

city. Previous to the revolution it had 1,200 houses, which were destroyed during the war of independence. In 1834 the present city was built, and consists of several good streets, a palace, university, hospital, barracks, and about 20,000 Greeks, Germans, French, Italians, Russians, Armenians, &c. Port Leone, the ancient Piræus, the port of Athens, has a population of 2,000. Other towns are, Napoli di Romania, the ancient capital (a place of 5,000 inhabitants), Leparto (the ancient Naupactus), Missolonghi (famed for the sieges it sustained during the war of independence, and as the deathplace of Lord Byron), Corinth (one of the finest cities of ancient Greece), Navarino, Sparta (long renowned in history), Egripo, Syra, Arna, Spezzia, Antiparos, Milo, and Egina; the latter three celebrated for their antiquities.

Productive Resources.—Among the agricultural products are, wheat, barley, maize, rye, oats, rice, millet, peas, beans, tares, sesamum, anise, cotton, and tobacco. Grapes or currants, almonds, dates, melons, oranges, and other southern fruits, grow in the open fields, and form a considerable part of the subsistence of the inhabitants. Culinary vegetables are in great variety, and the forests produce the oak, the cork-tree, pine, ash, aloe, wild olive, chestnut, various dye-woods and plants, and a vast variety of flowers and aromatic herbs. Manufactures exist only to a limited extent. Silk is produced in considerable quantities. Coarse cloths, furniture, implements of husbandry, &c., are made to some extent.

Commerce.—The admirable location of Greece, with its noble bays, give it superior natural facilities for commerce; and although its progress has been retarded by the unsettled state of its affairs, it is beginning to assume its proper commercial position. Its exports consist principally of raw produce, as cotton, corn, tobacco, olive-oil, timber, wool, silk, honey, currants, figs, hides, drugs, dyestuffs; with some wine, cheese, live stock, and the coarse manufactures of the country. The imports from Western Europe consist of manufactured goods, West India and American produce, and peltry; and from Turkey, coffee, flax, rice, drugs, &c.

Education.—The government is making considerable effort for the instruction of the people, in which it is aided by Christian missionaries from the United States, England, and other countries. The university of Athens has thirty professors, of whom eight are German, and the rest Greek. The lecture-rooms are crowded. The gymnasium has eight professors, and there is a high school attached, with four classes. In the different towns there are four gymnasiums, twelve primary and 180 Lancasterian schools, supported partly by the government, and partly by the communes. There are also commercial schools, and seminaries for the education of the Greek women, whom the Turkish system had left so long neglected. It is to be hoped, therefore, that ere long the lament of the noble poet will cease to be applicable to this fair country,—

"'Tis Greece—but living Greece no more."

Religion.—The Greek church owes its origin to the division of the Roman empire into Oriental or Greek, and Occidental or Western. The bishops of Constantinople and Rome, as representatives of the Greek and Latin churches, in the fourth and fifth centuries, struggled for supremacy; and in the latter part of the fifth century, Felix II., patriarch of Rome, excommunicated the patriarchs of Constantinople and of Alexandria. A reunion took place in 519, but the schism was renewed, and another excommunication took place in 862. In 1277, a synod was held at Constantinople to reunite the Latin and Greek churches, but in 1281 Pope Martin excommunicated the Greek emperor Michael, and the schism of the two churches has ever since continued. The Greek church recognises, in addition to the Bible, the traditions and doctrines approved by the Fathers, as settled at the Nicene, Constantinopolitan, Ephesian, Chal-

cedonian, and Trullan councils. Its tenets are so obligatory, that the denial of any is declared to involve the loss of salvation. Like the Roman church it has seven sacraments—baptism, chrism, the eucharist, penance, ordination, marriage, and supreme unction. The Holy Ghost is supposed to proceed from the Father only. The doctrines of purgatory, works of supererogation, indulgences, and dispensations to the living, are rejected. Neither the pope nor any one else is acknowledged as the visible vicar of Christ on earth; no carved, sculptured, or molten images are permitted, but paintings of Christ, the Virgin Mary, and the saints, inlaid with precious stones, are sanctioned. Relics, graves, and crosses, are held sacred; fasts are numerous, and preaching and catechising constitute but a small part of the church service, which is almost entirely made up of forms. The clergy, with the exception of the monks, and of the higher clergy, who are chosen from the monks, are permitted to marry once, but must not espouse a widow. Marriage of the laity is not indissoluble, as in the Romish church. Instrumental music is excluded from the Greek service, and the liturgy consists of passages of Scripture, prayers and legends of the saints, the creed, &c. The lower clergy can not rise higher than protopopes; the bishops are chosen from the monks, and they rise to the dignities of archbishops, metropolitans, and patriarchs.

Population.—Greece must formerly have been densely peopled. The whole of modern Greece probably contained about 8,000,000 inhabitants in the days of its glory, and even when subdued by the Turks must have been populous. In 1770 no less than 300,000 of the inhabitants of the Morea were put to the sword by their tyrants, for an attempted revolt at the instigation of Russia. According to a statistical government commission, the population in 1836 was—for Eastern Greece, 175,800 Greeks and 15,000 Turks; Western Greece, 116,700 Greeks and 4,500 Turks; Morea, 450,000 Greeks and 40,000 Turks—total, 742,500 Greeks, and 59,500 Turks: allowing 200,000 inhabitants for the islands, the total population of the kingdom of Greece is about 1,000,000. In character, the Greeks possess the same extraordinary antipathies, versatility, cunning, and boasting, gallantry and patriotism, so strangely blended in their ancestors. The same slightly-moulded but manly forms, beautiful symmetry, and expressive features, that distinguished a race whose progenitors, within a limited space and period of time, have occupied a larger and more interesting portion of history than any other nation.

Government.—An hereditary monarchy, a senate or legislative body, chosen every three years by the people, and an executive or judiciary body. The country is divided into eparchies or provinces. In the communes a demogoronte presides over every thousand families.

½ drachmi, 8 cents.

History.—The rise, progress, and decline of the different Grecian states as kingdoms, oligarchies, and republics; their contests with each other; the rivalry of Athens and Sparta; the numerous colonies founded on the coasts of Europe and Asia Minor; the Persian war; the invasion of Xerxes for the extermination of the liberties of Greece; the naval skill of the Athenians; the devoted heroism of the Spartans; the Peloponnesian war of twenty-seven years' duration; the Amphictyonic councils (to which may be traced the origin of modern representative institutions); the supremacy of Philip of Macedon, and his son, Alexander the Great; and the genius, the eloquence, the patriotism, the probity, and refined intellectual power of Greece, as exhibited in Socrates, Demosthenes, Draco, Lycurgus, Themistocles, Leonidas, Miltiades, Amphictyon, Alcibiades, Epaminondas, Aristides, Phocion, Democritus, Homer, Hesiod, Herodotus, Sophocles, Thucydides, Aristophanes, Phidias, and other great minds, are too well known to need detail in a work of this nature, where a limited space admits only of the grouping of general statements.

Alexander the Great, king of Macedon, while arranging his plans for the government of the gigantic empire established by his father and himself in Asia, as well as throughout Greece, died at Babylon in his thirty-third year, B. C. 323, and the vast territories subjected to his sway were distributed among his generals. Macedonia and Greece fell to Cassandar, but he and his successors being unable to maintain supremacy, their weakness gave rise to the Achaian and Ætolian leagues. The former comprised Athens, Corinth, and several smaller states; but the divisions in this league, and the generally distracted condition of Greece, caused its easy conquest by the Romans, who, B. C. 148, made Macedonia a Roman province, and B. C. 146, took Corinth, and finally destroyed all the free states of Greece, which was made a province of the empire under the title of Achaia. The annexation of Greece to Rome was injurious to the permanence of the latter as a dominant power; the once free land of Greece became the theatre on which ambitious men struggled for superiority, and the contest for the dominion of the world between Cæsar and Pompey was decided on the plains of Pharsalia. The Greeks, possessed of the most capacious minds then extant among mankind, who had refined their idolatry into a system of mystical types, but who still preserved a statue to the "Unknown God," whom they worshipped with fear, were well adapted for the introduction of the "new religion;" and among the Greek gentiles the apostles planted the earliest Christian churches. Greek missionaries bore the glad tidings of the gospel to distant lands; attested the sincerity of their faith by martyrdom; as Iconoclasts everywhere opposed idol worship, on the ruins of a pagan state founded a Christian empire; and the gradual extension of the faith of the cross over Europe, was followed by the rapid progress of civilization. On the downfall of the eastern empire, by the capture of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453, the Moslems, who had previously occupied Macedonia, Thessaly, Thrace, &c., extended their conquests over Greece Proper, the Morea, the Archipelago, &c., which had been successively ruled from 1204 to 1460 by the French, the Spaniards, and the Venetians. In 1687 the Venetians recovered the Morea, but in 1715 the Turks regained the mastery, and with the exception of a few mountain tribes, such as the Mainotes in the Morea, and the Souliotes in Epirus; the Moslems completely subjugated Greece, and divided into sandshaks or provinces, which were governed oppressively by pachas or beys, sent from Constantinople. Soon after the congress of Vienna in 1814–'15 the Greeks began their efforts for independence. At first the Turks defeated the Greeks in every engagement, and committed on them the most barbarous atrocities, and in 1821 whole bands of the gallant patriots were exterminated; but in January, 1822, the political existence and independence of all Greece was established. "Freedom or death" was the cry of Greece, and nobly was it sustained in the campaigns and actions, by land and sea, with their oppressors, in 1822–'25, when the sympathies of Europe were, on the violation of an armistice on the part of the Moslems, at length aroused; the combined fleets of England, France, and Russia, by the destruction of the Turkish navy, at the battle of Navarino, aided the struggles of the Greeks, and finally assisted in procuring the full recognition of independence. In this glorious struggle Lord Byron nobly participated, and died of fever at Missolonghi. Count Capo d'Istrias was chosen president, with monarchical powers; but his despotic conduct led to his assassination in October, 1831. The crown was then offered to Leopold of Saxe-Coburg, who refused it; and Prince Otho, son of the king of Bavaria, and a minor, was elected king of Greece, and is the present sovereign.

TURKEY (IN EUROPE).

Real of 20 piastres, 93 cents.

This fine country, which forms a portion of the dominions of the sultan, extends from the gulf of Arta in 38° 25′ to Moldavia, in 48° 20′ north latitude, and between 16° and 30° east longitude. In length, from north to south, it is about 700 miles, and from east to west about 600 miles, covering an area of 190,000 square miles of some of the richest territory of Europe. The military frontiers of Austria form the northern boundaries; Dalmatia and the Adriatic the western; Greece, the Archipelago, and the sea of Marmora, the southern; and the Black sea, the eastern frontiers. The Bosphorus, on which the capital, Constantinople,* is built, is the key of the Black sea; and the Dardanelles or Hellespont, which separates Europe from Asia, forms the eastern portal of the Mediterranean.

Physical Aspect.—European Turkey is diversified by mountains, valleys, forests, plains, rivers, and arms of the sea. Rumelia or Romania, Bulgaria, Servia, and Bosnia, are separated by numerous chains of mountains branching from the Balkan ridge, which intersect the country from the Black sea to the Adriatic. Wallachia and Moldavia, south and east of the Carpathian mountains, consist of a vast low plain, watered by the numerous tributaries of the Danube. The whole country between the Balkan and Carpathian mountains declines toward the Black sea. The soil is fertile and productive.

Mountains.—The Balkan run east and west, and have eight principal branches, three of which are on the north side of the chain. Orbelus, the highest peak of the Balkan, is 9,660 feet in height. The Hellenic mountains run from north to south, and divide Macedonia from Albania, and were anciently known as Pindus, Citharon, and Parnes. The Acroceraunian range rise directly from the seashore on the coast of Albania, to the height of 4,000 feet, and opposite Corfu have a magnificent appearance. The Dinaric Alps branch off from the point where the Balkan and Hellenic unite, range to the northwest, dividing Bosnia from the Adriatic provinces. The Carpathians belong properly to Hungary. Some of these mountain ranges are covered with fine forests, and are of calcareous formation, and abound in deep ravines and wild scenery.

Rivers and Lakes.—The rivers are, the Danube, the mouth of which

* Constantinople, in 41° 12′ north latitude, is most favorably situated for the capital of a great empire. The city is built upon hills, three fourths of it face the sea, and appears from a distance an immense assemblage of cupolas, mosques, and minarets. The houses painted of different colors, interspersed with gardens and fine mulberry, acacia, palm, and fig-trees; the placid sea covered with thousands of vessels and gondolas, and the far-famed mountains of Giants, rising from the Asiatic shores of the Bosphorus, all contribute to produce an effect not to be found in any other city in the world. There are in Constantinople 14 imperial and 200 ordinary mosques, 300 mesjids or chapels, 80 bazars (which are a distinguishing characteristic of the city), 500 fountains, 100,000 houses, and nearly 900,000 inhabitants. The sèraglio or imperial palace occupies the point of the promontory, and consists of a group of buildings of various forms and dimensions, in the midst of numerous courts and gardens, the whole being surrounded by a high wall. Scutari may be considered a suburb of Constantinople, and is delightfully situated on the opposite or Asiatic coast; it contains 30,000 inhabitants, and is the high road for all caravans proceeding from Europe to Persia, Syria, Arabia, &c. Pera, where the foreign ministers and Europeans generally reside, presents a singular variety of the costume, language, and manners of all the Europeans nations. The harbor or "Golden Horn" of Constantinople is 4,000 fathoms long, 3,000 broad, and ships may anchor close to the houses. The Bosphorus or canal of Constantinople is seven leagues long, with a depth of fifteen to twenty fathoms. It is strongly defended by fortresses, as are also the Dardanelles. The receptacles for the dead are not the least interesting or important objects in Constantinople; they are far more picturesque and commodious than those of the living, and occupy hardly less extent of ground. The people of every creed have separate cemeteries. Those of the Moslems are distinguished by the dark cypresses with which they are planted, and by their turbaned stones of white marble. A cypress is always planted over each mussulman's grave; and as no grave is opened a second time, their burial-grounds have become vast forests, extending for miles around the city and its suburbs. Multitudes of turtle-doves frequent these gloomy abodes, and hold a divided sway with bats and owls. Burying within the city is strictly prohibited. The city has frequently been devastated by the plague and fires; during the months of July and August, 1852, more than 6,000 buildings were burnt.

Russia now commands, by the possession of Bessarabia; the Mariza, which waters Rumelia, and flows into the Ægean sea; the Drin, Varda, and other streams that contribute to render Turkey one of the best-irrigated countries in Europe. The lakes are few and small. Those of Ocherida, twenty miles long and eight wide, Scutari, and Yanena, are the chief. There are numerous small lakes in Macedonia and Thessaly.

Climate.—The climate of Turkey is temperate, naturally well adapted for man, and its rich soil is capable of yielding abundantly every vegetable product; but the filthy habits, sensuality, and indolence, resulting from opium-smoking, have caused its cities to be seats of pestilence; and a country that might have been the very garden of Europe is, in many parts, wild and uninhabitable.

Provinces.—Rumelia is divided into five districts. 1. Gallipoli, comprehends the southern part of ancient Thrace, and extends along the coast, from Constantinople to the gulf of Lagos, adjoining Macedonia; area 9,600 square miles. Gallipoli city (population 15,000), at the entrance of the Dardanelles, is well fortified. 2. Visa, the most mountainous part of Thrace; Constantinople, the capital of the empire, is in this sandshak. 3. Kirkillissia, north of Visa. 4. Phillipopolis, north of Gallipoli, and separated from Macedonia by the Despoto Dagh mountains, is a fertile district. The city of Phillipopolis, in 42° 10′ north latitude, has a population of 30,000, chiefly Grecian. 5. Tchermen, between Kirkillissia and Phillipopolis, is a beautiful and well-watered district; Adrianople, the chief town, was founded by the emperor Adrian, and is beautifully situated on the Maritza river, in the centre of a naturally rich country, and is more Turkish than any other town in the empire; population about 100,000, of whom one half are Turks, 30,000 Greeks, and 20,000 Armenians and Jews. Macedonia, between Rumelia and Albania, is one of the finest provinces of European Turkey. It yields in abundance grain, oil, wine, silk, and cotton; the Scardus and Pangeus mountains traverse the country, the silver mines of the Pangeus are still celebrated. Mount Athos is formed by a peninsula chain of mountains twenty-four miles long and twelve broad; the height above the gulf of Salonica is 8,000 feet. Salonica, the capital of Macedonia, is second to Constantinople in commercial importance. Its inhabitants are computed at 100,000, of whom 50,000 are Jews, 30,000 Turks, and 20,000 Greeks and other Franks. The city has an imposing appearance with its domes and monuments. Thessaly, separated from Macedonia by a branch of the famed Olympus, and divided from Albania by a part of the Pindus chain, is a mountainous region with deep valleys, such as Tempe, and plains that appear like dried-up lakes; Larissa is the capital, population 20,000. Albania extends from the gulf of Arta, northerly along the Adriatic, in length about 270, and in breadth 50 to 100 miles. It is a picturesque region, has been the theatre of incessant revolutions, from being divided into several independent pachalics, the whole of which were brought by the pacha of Janina (known as Ali Pacha) under his sway, who had an army of 30,000 men, and only yielded a nominal allegiance to the Porte. Bosnia is in many parts mountainous, but has extensive fruitful plains producing abundance of food. One half the population are Mohammedans, one fourth Greeks, 16,000 gipsies, 2,000 Jews, 1,500 Armenians, and the remainder chiefly Roman catholics. The population is nearly a million; the pure Bosnians, like the Servians, are of the Sclavonian race, and profess the Greek faith. Bosnia Serai, the capital, has 55,000 inhabitants, and a considerable trade. Servia, which is a tributary province of the Ottoman empire, is mountainous, with fertile valleys. The inhabitants, chiefly Greeks, rear large quantities of cattle and hogs; the vine, hemp, cotton, and tobacco, are cultivated; the hogs, which in summer fatten on acorns, are fed in winter on maize, and exported to the number of 250,000 annually. Oak timber, and also iron, coal, copper, and lead abound. Belgrave, the capital, on the Save, is well

situated for trade. The Servians are the descendants of the ancient Sclavonians, whose character and manners they retain. They are described as a high-spirited and majestic people, in number about a million. Bulgaria province comprises the pachalics of Varna, Silistria, and Sophia; the inhabitants are chiefly industrious Greeks. The country is well-wooded, and with the exception of a large district between Sistora and the Balkan chain, well adapted for cultivation. Varna, the chief town, is a place of considerable trade, and exports largely wheat, corn, barley, pulse, tallow, wool, wax, hides, and sheep.

Productive Resources.—The most valuable fruits grow spontaneously, and the crops of grain are larger than needed for home consumption. Among the productions are oil, wine, cotton, tobacco, figs, citron, pomegranates, lemons, oranges, date-palm, banana, sugarcane, indigo, &c. Copper and lead are the chief mineral products. Among the manufactures of Turkey are carpets, silk and cotton fabrics, firearms, brass and iron works, &c.

Commerce.—The commerce is small, considering the great resources of the empire, and the liberality of the Turkish tariff, which admits foreign goods at a very moderate per-centage; there are, however, export duties, monopolies, and exactions by pachas, &c., which materially impede trade. The imports are principally woollen and cotton goods. The exports are horses, beeves, hides, wool, corn, oil, fruits, gums, drugs, wine, tobacco, opium, silk, carpets, leather, metals, dyes, &c. The principal ports are Constantinople, Adrianople, and Salonica.

Education.—Public schools are established in most considerable Turkish towns, and medresses or colleges, with public libraries, are attached to the greater number of the principal mosques. But, owing to the total want of efficient masters, and of good elementary books, the instruction afforded by these establishments is of comparatively little value. In schools the pupils are taught to read and write the first elements of the Turkish language; the class-books being the Koran, and some commentaries upon it. In the medresses, which are the colleges or schools of the ulemes, the pupils are instructed in Arabic or Persian, and learn to decipher and write the different kinds of Turkish characters; instruction in a species of philosophy, logic, rhetoric, and morals founded on the Koran; and these, with theology, Turkish law, and a few notions on history and geography, complete the course of study. It must, however, be borne in mind, that Turkish schools are mostly attended by boys only, education not being considered necessary to a girl.

Population.—The population is very vaguely estimated. Turkey in Europe is stated to contain about 11,000,000 inhabitants, on an area of 190,000 square miles, independent of the several valuable islands in the Archipelago, belong to Turkey. The inhabitants are varied in race and character. The pure Turks do not constitute a moiety of the population, the remainder being composed of Tartars, Armenians, Albanians, Greeks, &c. Mr. Urquhart estimates the Mussulman population at 4,500,000. There are about 200,000 gipsies, 250,000 Jews, and 100,000 Armenians. There are in Constantinople about 600,000 Mohammedans, 120,000 Greeks, 90,000 Armenians, 50,000 Jews, and 2,000 Franks. The Turks have degenerated from their former manly character; sunk in sensuality and sloth, they will probably ere long be driven out of Europe, or subjected to some dominant race.

Government.—The government is absolute; the sultan is at the head of all temporal and spiritual power, and he is the pope of the Mohammedans throughout the world. Two lieutenants represent the power of the sultan, the mufti in religion and laws; the grand vizier in civil and military affairs. Under these there are different functionaries for foreign affairs, finance, trade, &c., who form the divan or supreme council of the empire. The provinces are governed by pachas, nominated by the sultan; each province has its municipality, and local

laws, taxes and customs, and to this may be ascribed the preservation of the empire when it has seemed on the eve of irretrievable ruin.

History.—The Turks, a Tartaric or Scythian race, migrated from the steppes of Asia and the Siberian regions in quest of a more fertile country and more genial clime. The Turks, from their bravery, were chosen as the body-guard of the califs, or successors of Mohammed. They embraced the new religion, acquired great influence, and their chiefs gradually enthroned themselves in the dominions of those whom they were hired to serve. In the ninth and tenth centuries Turkish dynasties reigned in Palestine, Syria, and Egypt; from the tenth to the twelfth centuries, the Turkish Gasnevides acquired dominions in Persia and in India; other tribes overran Asia; and the Mongols, a branch of the Tartar stem, conquered China. Osman or Othoman, a chief of the Oguzian Turkomans, aided by robbers, slaves, and captives, conquered several provinces belonging to the Roman empire in Asia Minor, founded the Ottoman empire, and took the title of sultan in 1300. Orchan, his son, established the seat of his dominion at Brussa, in Bithynia, in 1328, married the daughter of the Grecian emperor Kantakuzenos, and assumed the title of padiska or prince. Solyman I., son of Orchan, in 1355, made himself master of the straits which divide Europe from Asia; entered Europe in 1355, and seized Gallipoli and Sestos. Amurath I. established the seat of his empire at Adrianople, expelled the troops from Thrace, and defeated the Bulgarians and Servians. Bajazet, his successor, added largely to the European Turkish dominions; and his power became so formidable that an army of 130,000 men, under Sigismund, king of Hungary, alone prevented his seizing Constantinople. The capture of Bajazet, and the destruction of the greater part of his army, by Tamerlane or Timour the Tartar, for a time checked the Turkish power in Europe. Amurath II. plundered Macedon, Bœotia, &c., conquered Servia, and besieged Belgrade, where it is said he lost 150,000 men in one attack, when he was obliged to raise the siege; but in 1444, the Christians suffered a severe defeat from him at Varna. By the aid of cannon the Turks conquered the whole Peloponessus, and under Mohammed II. besieged Constantinople with 400,000 men, on the 6th of April, 1453. The Greek emperor Constantine bravely defended himself with only 9,000 regular troops, but on the 29th of May he fell in a desperate assault, the imperial city was taken, and became for three days a scene of dreadful slaughter; thus, 1123 years after Constantine the Great had removed the seat of Christian empire from Rome to Byzantium, it fell a prey to the Mohammedans, and became the chief seat of their religion and power. Successive sultans added to the Ottoman dominions in Europe and in Asia, despite the whole power of Christendom; and but for the gallantry of the Venetians, the Hungarians, and the Poles, the Turks would probably have overrun Europe, as they did a large part of Asia and of Africa. Peter the Great, of Russia, endeavored to reduce the power of Turkey, and his descendants have gradually succeeded, by conquest and diplomatic intrigue, in materially diminishing the strength and power of the Ottoman empire. Russia has long coveted Constantinople as the seat of empire, which, if obtained, would give her the control of the Mediterranean; and she would probably ere this have succeeded, had not the jealousy of rival European powers prevented it.

TURKISH EMPERORS OR SULTANS.

Osman or Othoman I.1296	Cactacus.....1481	Osman I.....1617	Osman II.....1754
Orchan.....1325	Xemin.....1481	Mustapha I.....1622	Mustapha III.....1757
Amurath I.....1359	Bajazet II.....1481	Amurath IV.....1623	Achmet IV.....1774
Bajazet I.....1388	Selim I.....1512	Ibrahim.....1640	Selim III.....1789
Isa Belis.....1397	Solyman II.....1520	Mohammed IV.....1655	Mustapha IV.....1807
Solyman.....1403	Selim II.....1566	Solyman III.....1687	Mah. Khan II.....1808
Musa.....1410	Amurath III.....1594	Achmet II.....1691	Abdul-Medjid.....1839
Mohammed I.....1413	Mohammed III.....1595	Mustapha II.....1695	
Amurath II.....1421	Achmet.....1604	Achmet III.....1703	
Mohammed II.....1451	Mustapha I.....1617	Mahomet V.....1730	

ASIA
Lon. East from Greenwich
EUROPE
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
SIBERIA
AFRICA
ARABIA
PERSIA
TARTARY
CHINESE TARTARY
CHINESE EMPIRE
CHINA
HINDOOSTAN
INDIA
THIBET
AFGHANISTAN
BELOOCHISTAN
TURCOMINIA
KIRGUIS
CIRCASSIA
BIRMAH
SIAM
COCHINCHIN
COREA
NIPHON
JAPAN ISLES
KAMTSCHATKA
Baltic Sea
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Red Sea
Arabian Sea
Bay of Bengal
China Sea
Sea of Japan
Sea of Okhotsk
NORTH PACIFIC
PACIFIC OCEAN
INDIAN OCEAN
Arctic Circle
Equator
N. East Cape
Nova Zembla
St. Petersburg
Constantinople
Odessa
Tobolsk
Catherinenburg
Omsk
Tomsk
Yeniseisk
Irkutsk
Kirensk
Olensk
Yakutsk
Okhotsk
Altay Mts.
Thianchan Mts.
Himmaleh Mts.
Desert of Cobi
Pekin
Nankin
Canton
Calcutta
Bombay
Goa
Madras
Delhi
Surat
Ceylon
Maldive Is.
Mecca
Medina
Sana
Mocha
Muscat
Cairo
Jerusalem
Damascus
Aleppo
Ispahan
Teheran
Herat
Cabul
Cashmere
Bokhara
Khiva
Khokan
Yarkand
Cashgar
Lassa
Borneo
Sumatra
Java
Celebes
Mindanao
Luzon
Philippine Islands
Formosa
Papua or New Grenada
Caroline Is.
Solomon Is.
NEW HOLLAND OR AUSTRALIA
WEST AUSTRALIA
S. AUSTRALIA
NEW SOUTH WALES
Perth
Sidney
Adelaide
Bass Strait
Van Diemens Land
AUSTRALIA

ASIA.

This vast continent is bounded on the north by the Arctic ocean, on the northeast by Behring's straits (which separate Asia from America), on the east by the Pacific ocean, under the names of the seas of Kamtschatka, Okhotsk, Japan, the Yellow and China seas, on the south by the bay of Bengal, the Indian ocean, and Arabian sea, on the west by the Red sea, the isthmus of Suez (which unites Asia with Africa), the Mediterranean, the sea of Marmora, the Black sea, the Caucasian mountains, the Caspian sea, and the Uralian mountains, and which, with an imperfectly defined territorial line, divide Russia in Europe from Russia in Asia. Excepting on the Russian frontier, and at the isthmus of Suez, Asia is surrounded by water. On the east and southeast are many large and valuable islands; those which are termed the Eastern Archipelago commence at the straits of Malacca, and form a continuous chain of islands between Asia and Australasia. From East Cape in Behring's straits to the Dardanelles the distance is about 6,000 miles; and from Northeast Cape in Siberia to the termination of the peninsula of Malacca, latitude 1° 18′ north, a direct line from north to south, would measure 5,500 miles. The area is variously estimated: by Hassel at 20,433,205 English square miles; by Gräberg (without the islands in the Indian ocean) at 16,262,100 square miles. Mr. Bell, supposes its mean extent from east to west to be about 100 degrees, or 4,275 geographical miles, and its mean extent from north to south to be about 60 degrees, or 3,600 geographical miles, which gives a superficies of 15,390,000 geographical square miles; this does not include the islands. Its extremely irregular outline, however, renders any estimate formed by multiplying length by breadth very uncertain.

Physical Aspect.—The central regions of Asia form a vast elevated plateau or plain, which extends several thousand miles from east to west, and covers an area of more than 3,000,000 square miles. This table-land is supported on the north by the Altai mountains, on the south by the Himalaya and Thibetian ranges, is flanked on the east by the Yung-ling and Inshau ranges of mountains, and divided into lesser plateaux of different sizes and degrees of altitude by the mountain ridges which intersect its surface. From this elevated region flow the several great rivers which peculiarly characterize the Asiatic continent. The successive elevations are termed steppes, and in many instances consist of immense desert tracts of rugged, flinty rock, and sand.* From the Altai mountains the dip of the land is south to north, as far as the marshy tracts on the margin of the Icy sea. The Siberian low land stretches from the foot of the Ural chain almost to the Pacific, and presents a dreary level skirted to the south and east by the Altai mountains. From the Himalaya the dip of the land is to the south and east, and from the Caucasian range generally to the south.

Mountains.—The Altai or Golden mountains, which constitute the great chain of Central Asia, extend between the parallels of 43° and 53° north, and the meridians of 85° and 97° east of Greenwich. The altitude has not been

* One of the most remarkable features of Asia is these vast deserts. All the northern section of Siberia, with slight exception, may be regarded as an immense steppe, interspersed with marshes; and in the south are the steppes and salt plains of "Kirghiz," northeast of lake Aral; "Ischim," between the Irtish and the Tobol; and the "Baraba," between the Irtish and the Obi. But the most remarkable deserts are those sandy plains which occupy the greater part of the southwest and central regions of the continent, extending with little interruption from the Atlantic to the northeast of China, a distance of more than 9,000 miles. Travellers represent these deserts as a succession of sandy plain and barren mountains, almost destitute of water, and uninhabited even by beasts and birds.

accurately ascertained, but the highest peaks rise above the limits of perpetual snow. The Himalaya, which form the northern boundary of Hindostan, and have, like the Altai, a general direction from west to east, are the loftiest range on this earth, and extend nearly 2,000 miles. The peaks rise from 20,000 to 28,000 feet; on the south side of this backbone of the world, where the mountains rise out of a flat country, the snow-line in latitude 30° commences at an elevation of 12,500 to 13,000 feet; on the north side, where the plains of Thibet are 10,000 feet above the sea, the snow-line is 16,000 feet. The other great ridges of the Caucasus, the Taurus, the Ural, and other lesser and insular mountains, will be found described, with the countries to which they respectively belong.

Volcanic Region.—From Kamschatka to the Moluccas there is a continued volcanic line. On the north, in the Aleutian archipelago, the volcanic action is distributed for 200 miles in a westerly direction toward the continent of America; the line proceeds southward from Kamtschatka through the Kurile islands and Japan, thence through Loo-choo to Manilla and the Philippine islands; and on reaching the Eastern Archipelago it spreads east and west, and contributes to the formation of those rich and beautiful islands. The volcanic action is so active in the north, that almost every island in the Aleutian appears to be under its influence; violent earthquakes continually alter the surface of the land, and in 1806 a new island, four miles in circumference, and said to be 3,000 feet in height, was projected at once from the sea. Another island of extraordinary elevation was formed in 1814. In Kamtschatka there are thirteen volcanic peaks; seven in a state of activity; the peak of Klutchefskaia is 15,825 feet above the sea. In Japan slight earthquakes are incessant, and there are some active volcanoes. In the Loo-choo archipelago is a sulphuric mountain. In the Philippines there are three active volcanoes; in Java thirty-eight. No active volcano is known in China Proper, or in India; but both China and India are subject to earthquakes. In the loftiest peaks of the Himalaya, amid the regions of perpetual snow, there are, it is said, several active volcanoes; the volcanic line extends thence westward beneath Mount Ararat and the Caucasian range to the Caspian, between which and the Black sea is the remarkable "Field of Fire."

Lakes.—Notwithstanding the great elevations of the land, there are no lakes in Asia which can be compared in size and depth with those in North America. The principal inland sea is the Caspian, which extends from 36° 40′ to 47° 20′ north, and from 46° to 54° east. Its greatest ordinary depth is from 450 to 520 feet; in one place soundings were not found with a line of 2,889 feet. In general the water is shoaling, and vessels drawing eighteen feet that used to navigate freely can no longer do so. Storms are frequent and dangerous. The waters have a bitter, salt taste, attributed to the quantities of naphtha with which the surrounding country is impregnated. Aral lake or sea, which is also salt, covers an area of 15,290 square miles. Lake Baikal, in the southern part of Siberia, is 300 miles long. The Dead sea, in Palestine, is as saline as the ocean; most of the lakes in Asia are salt or bitter; several are to be found in China, India, Persia, and Thibet.

Rivers.—The rivers of Asia are numerous, and of great extent, but not equal in either breadth or length to some in America. Malte-Brun estimates the surfaces of the rivers in different parts of Asia (the total being taken as unity) as follows: The rivers of Siberia, flowing to the north, are as 0·31; to the east, 0·02; of China and Chinese Tartary, 0·15; of all India, 0·27; of Central Asia, 0·08; of Asiatic Turkey, 0·10: of Persia with Armenia, 0·06; of Arabia, 0·03. The principal rivers are, the Yang-tze-kiang, Hoang-ho, Amour, Obi, Yenisei, Lena, Indus, Ganges, Brahmapootra, Irawaddy, Cambodia, Euphrates, and Tigris. There are many other large rivers; some of them tribu-

taries or branches of the above-named, such as the Jumna, Chumbul, Nerbuddah, &c., in India; the Pearl, and other noble streams, in China.

Islands.—The islands belonging to Asia are large and important, and have chiefly, especially those of the Indian ocean, become very valuable to the world. They are mostly of volcanic origin. The principal are, the Aleutian islands, which extend between the peninsula of Kamtschatka and that of Alaska in America; Cyprus, in the Levant, and a number of small islands in the Archipelago; Ceylon, Andaman, and the Nicobar islands, in the bay of Bengal; Hainan, and Formosa, in the Chinese sea; the Majicosima, Loo-choo, Japan, and Kurile islands, in the Pacific ocean; and others of less note, as the Maldives, and Lacadives, in the Arabian gulf, and the new Siberian group in the Arctic ocean, opposite the Lena gulf. These will be more fully described elsewhere.

Climate.—Every variety from the frozen region to the equator. In the countries north of the 62d parallel the rivers continue frozen from September to June; between the 62d and 50th parallels, including Southern Siberia, Kasan, part of Astrachan, half of the Kerghizian steppes, and the northern half of the Mongolia and Manchuria, the Aleutian and Kurile islands, the rivers are frozen from the end of October to the end of May. The countries between 50° and 35° comprise for the greater part the plateau of Central Asia, in which the climate is greatly modified by elevation and aspect. The countries south of the 35th parallel include the richest portions of the globe, viz., India, Southern China, Turkey in Asia, Arabia, Southern Persia, Birmah, Siam, Cochin-China, &c. Over a large part of these countries the sun is nearly perpendicular from April to November; they have abundant periodic rains, and luxuriant vegetation. Southern Asia is warmer, and Northern Asia colder, than the degrees of latitude would indicate, and in the north of Asia the cold is greater to the eastward. This seems to be caused by the great extent of land, and by there being no mountains to break the current of cold air from the Frozen ocean in its passage to the southward and eastward.

Animal Kingdom.—The largest and the most ferocious animals of the world are to be found in Asia; the elephant, rhinoceros, and tiger, in India, Ceylon, Birmah, Siam, Sumatra, Malacca, &c.; the lion and panther in Persia and Arabia; the camel, dromedary, buffalo, wild horse, and wild ass, in India, Arabia, Persia, Turkey in Asia, Thibet, and the great central plateau. Wolves and jackals also abound. The camel is found to the 55th parallel; the dromedary to the 50th; the wild ass to the 48th. In the greater part of China Proper civilized man has destroyed every wild animal. Asia is the native home of all the more useful species of animals; with the exception, perhaps, of the sheep. From some district or other of this continent came, originally, the ox, hores, goat, ass, together with the whole race of domestic poultry, except the turkey, which is a denizen of this continent. Utility may, indeed, be regarded as the leading characteristic of Asiatic zoology; for, though its carnivorous mammalia be numerous, as compared with the whole number of species, the majority are not merely harmless to man, but useful to him. The peacock, pheasant, ostrich, and emu, are natives of Asia.

Vegetable Kingdom.—The products are rich and varied. The useful and beautiful palm-tribe, the "queen of trees," is especially remarkable. Tea, coffee, sugar, cotton, silk, tobacco, opium, indigo, peppers, rice, gums, drugs, and dyes; and the hardest, largest, and most beautiful timber, are the products of this favored quarter of the world.

Mineral Kingdom.—There is no precious or useful mineral which is not found in this immense continent. Among its mineral resources may be named, diamonds and other precious stones, gold, silver, quicksilver, copper, iron, tin, and coal. Diamonds are found in India and Asiatic Russia; gold is chiefly found in the Ural mountains, in Arabia, India, China, and the Eastern Archipe-

lago; tin in Malacca and Banca; silver in China, Russia, Turkey, and Japan: quicksilver in China; coal almost everywhere.

Productive Resources.—The useful arts are cultivated in the Asiatic empires with peculiar diligence. Agriculture is carried on with great industry, though with much ruder machinery than in Europe or America. Asia has also a number of manufactures, which are not equalled in richness and beauty by those of any other part of the world; among which are the carpets of Persia, the muslins of India, the porcelain of China, and the lacquered ware of Japan.

Political Divisions.—The following table gives a summary view of the states of Asia, with their respective areas, population, chief cities, &c.

STATES.	Area in square miles.	Population.	Chief Cities.	Population.
Turkey (in Asia)	450,000	16,000,000	Aleppo	200,000
Arabia	850,000	10,000,000	Mecca	20,000
Persia	450,000	9,500,000	Teheran	70,000
Afghanistan	250,000	8,000,000	Cabul	60,000
Beloochistan	100,000	1,200,000	Kelat	25,000
Hindostan	1,296,000	132,870,000	Calcutta	250,000
Farther India	927,000	24,000,000	Ava	150,000
Chinese Empire	5,000,000	422,000,000	Peking	2,000,000
Independent Tartary	844,000	7,000,000	Bokhara	150,000
Russia (in Asia)	3,600,000	2,700,000	Tobolsk	20,000
Japan	270,000	25,000,000	Jeddo	530,000
Madagascar and other islands	300,000	6,000,000	Tananarivo	12,000
Total	14,337,000	664,270,000		

Races.—Following the division of Blumenbach, into four great races, Hassel estimated them thus:—Caucasian, 164,000,000; Mongolian, 291,000,000; Malayan, 24,000,000; Ethiopian, 1,000,000. The Caucasians include the Turks, Georgians, Armenians, Jews, Syrians, Persians, Arabs, Bokharians, Afghans, Seiks, Hindus, and Tartars of Middle Asia. The Mongolians include the Chinese, Mantchus, Tungoos, Coreans, Japanese, Thibetians, Cochin-Chinese, Siamese, Birmans, and the Fins, Kuriles, Kamschatkalians, Koriaks in Siberia, and the Samoides on the shores of the Arctic ocean. The Malayans include the Malays of Malacca, the Javanese, Sumatrans, Bornese, Celebes, Philippines. and other islands of the Eastern Archipelago. The Ethiopians include the few Negro-looking races which still exist on the high lands of India, Malayan peninsula, Ceylon, &c.

Languages.—Adenburg enumerates 937 Asiatic dialects. The Hindus, Persians, Afghans, Armenians, Koords, Bokharians, Russians, and Greeks, have each a number of Sanscrit roots in their respective languages. The existing Arabic has a common origin with the Syriac, Chaldee, Phœnician, and Hebrew languages, which are extinct. The Chinese have no alphabet; their language is phonetic the characters which represent ideas are similar throughout the whole Chinese empire, but the spoken dialects differ in every province.

Religion.—Buddhism is professed in Hindostan, China, Japan, Cochin-China, Siam, Birmah, Ceylon, some parts of the Eastern Archipelago, and among the Mongols and Tungoos. Braminism in Hindostan; Islamism in Arabia, Persia, Afghanistan, Hindostan, Turkestan, and Central Asia, Malacca, and some parts of China and the eastern islands. The pure and refined system of Christianity, though it was first communicated to Asia, has been corrupted and destroyed. The Christians chiefly reside in Turkey, and in Russia in Asia; the Ghebirs, Sabeans, and Druses, in Persia and Asiatic Turkey; the Jews are scattered everywhere, and various systems of idolatry are to be found in the islands of the Pacific.

Civilization.—Though far inferior to that of Europe, it is greatly superior to that of Africa. Asia presents the distinguishing feature of great empires: viz., that of China, British India, Russia, Turkey, Persia, Birmah, Siam, Cochin-China, Corea, and Japan. These are regular and organized governments, with all of whom, except Japan and Corea, the United States and the principal nations of Europe have intercourse or diplomatic relations.

TURKEY (IN ASIA).

The territory in Asia, over which the sultan of Constantinople holds a sovereignty, now so much weakened as to be in many places little more than nominal, lies between 30° and 42° north latitude, and 26° and 48° east longitude. It extends in a southeasterly direction from the Bosphorus to the Persian gulf, a distance of 1,400 miles, and from the isthmus of Suez to Trebizond, in a northerly direction, a distance of 1,000 miles. Its superficial area is about 450,000 square miles. Under a civilized and Christian government, this vast and fertile region, abutting on the Mediterranean, Black sea, Persian gulf, and Red sea, and favorably situated in the temperate zone, might have regained the power and opulence which anciently characterized the remarkable countries now comprised within its limits; but for five hundred years the blighting influence of the crescent has been felt throughout the land on which the pure light of Christianity first arose.

Physical Aspect.—The maritime features of the country are strongly marked; on the west the coast is deeply indented, and broken into numerous islands; on the south the Mediterranean has formed large bays, notwithstanding this there are few good harbors; on the eastern shore of the Mediterranean, from Iskenderoon El-Arish, the coast extends in nearly a straight line. On the northern part of Turkey in Asia, in the Black sea, there are several small but safe ports. The interior of the country is marked by great inequalities; the Taurus mountains traverse Asia Minor, the lofty Lebanon range extends through Syria, ramifications of the Caucasus and Taurus spread over Armenia and part of Mesopotamia, and a mountainous region separates Koordistan from Persia. The southern territory form the basins of the great rivers Tigris and Euphrates.

Rivers and Lakes.—The principal rivers of Asiatic Turkey are the famed Euphrates and Tigris. The Euphrates is formed by the junction of two large streams in Armenia, the Marad and the Frot. The Tigris has its principal source in the mountains of the country of Zoph, 5,000 feet above the level of the sea. These two streams, after a long and winding course, until a short distance above their common estuary, and forming the Shat al Arab, empty into the Persian gulf. The other rivers are the Sokharia and Kirzil Irmak, flowing into the Black sea; and the Meindor, Koduschay, and others, flowing into the Mediterranean. There are few lakes in Asiatic Turkey, and those mostly saline. Lakes Van and Nasook, near the eastern frontier, are the most important. Chains of small salt lakes extend through portions of Asia Minor.

Climate.—In a region extending through twelve degrees of latitude, and over twenty of longitude, having every variety of elevation, exposure, soil, and subsoil, there must necessarily be a great variation of climate. In the highlands of Armenia, even the plains are covered with snow as late as May; and the fine season, properly so called, does not comprise more than four months of the year, during which period both sowing and reaping are completed. Asia Minor and Syria have but two seasons, the transition between them being scarcely perceptible.

Seaports.—On the Black sea are, Eregli, a safe port, except when strong northerly winds prevail; Amasserah, small and intricate; Sinope, a safe road and port, valuable from its naval dockyards, but not much frequented by merchants; Samsoun; and Trebizond, a good port, which has of late years become of importance, as the chief depot of the trade between Asia and the east of Europe. In the sea of Marmora is Scutari, a port of much commercial activity. In the Archipelago is situated Smyrna, the principal port of Asia Minor, and Scala Nova, also an excellent port, with considerable trade. In the Mediter-

ranean—Adulia and Tarsus, Iskenderoon, Lakatai, Tripoli, Beirout, Saida or Sidon, St. Jean d'Acre, and Jaffa, several of them large roadsteads, but not generally secure havens. The islands of Scio, Mytilene or Lesbos, Rhodes, and Cyprus, have harbors. Bassora or Bussorah, at the head of the Persian gulf, is important from its commanding position, and as a commercial emporium.

Political Divisions.—Turkey in Asia includes Asia Minor, Syria and Palestine, Armenia, Kaizik, Kars, Al-Jezeerah (Algezira) or Mesopotamia, Koordistan, and Irak-Arabi.

Chief Towns and Population.—The following statement of the population of the principal cities and towns in Asiatic Turkey is given on the authority of Balbi, Von Hammer, Niebuhr, Fontanier, Kinnier, Buckingham, Schutz, and others :—

Chief Towns.	Population.	Chief Towns.	Population.	Chief Towns.	Population.	Chief Towns.	Population.
Aleppo	200,000	Diarbekir	60,000	Amasia	50,000	Mytilyne	14,000
Damascus	140,000	Koota-ca	50,000	Jerusalem	30,000	Bargroat	13,000
Smyrna	130,000	Trebizond	50,000	Kaisarich	25,000	Rhodes (fort)	11,000
Bagdad	100,000	Urfah	50,000	Bitlis	20,000	Sinope	10,000
Erzeroum	100,000	Angora	40,000	Erzingan	30,000	Kastamouni	15,000
Tokat	100,000	Manisia	40,000	Mondania	20,000	Haman	15'000
Broussa	95,000	Van	40,000	Scala Nova	20,000	Satalia	20,000
Bussora	62,000	Mourt	18,000	Acre	20,000	Ere Ili	5,000
Kara-Hissar	60,000	Konieh	30,000	Dais ElKamek	16,000	Latakich	5,000
Mossoul	60,000	Tarsus	30,000	Tripoli	15,000	Jaffa	4,000
Scutari	60,000	Guzel-Hissar	30,000	Bayazid	15,000	Ak-cheher	50,000

Asia Minor.—The peninsula termed Asia Minor, to distinguish it from Asia Major, or Continental Asia, is bounded on the north by the Euxine or Black sea, on the south by the Mediterranean and part of Syria, on the west by the Ægean sea, the Dardanelles or Hellespont, the sea of Marmora and the Bosphorus or channel of Constantinople, and on the east by the basin of the river Euphrates, part of Armenia, and several districts of Turkey in Asia. Its area, exclusive of Cyprus and other islands, is 150,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—Generally speaking, the peninsula of lesser Asia is a wide-spreading tableland, sloping westward of the Euphrates; comprising extensive places not unfrequently furrowed by deep valleys, separated from each other by lofty ranges, and completely enclosed by them, forming remarkable mountain basins. The plain on which the town of Kootá-ya is situated is about 6,000 feet above the sea, and the neighboring hills about 2,000 feet. The western part of the peninsula has vast saline plains, and lakes that have no outlets; the eastern, a more diversified surface of mountain ridges and valleys; the northern division, from the Euphrates to Constantinople, is very beautiful, intersected with ranges, romantic glens, deep woods, and numerous plantations; the southern coast is the least attractive, and consists chiefly of a narrow barren plain, bounded by the steep and rugged Taurus range.

Rivers and Lakes.—The rivers are generally small; the principal are the Halys, Iris, Fatsa or Fatisa, Apsarus, Tehora, Bathys or Phasis, the Saugarius or Sacaria, Thymbrius or Poursac, the Gallus, Billaus, Parthenius or Bartin-Su, the Rhyndachus, now the Susughirli, the Æsipus, Granicus, now the Œstrola, Horisius, now Horsui, the Scamander, now Bogne-Minder, and the Simois, called Kutchuch or Little-Minder. The streams which flow into the Ægean sea are the Caicus, Hermus, Cayster, Mæander, now Grimakli, the Sarabat, Kutchuch-Minder, and the Minder-Su. The lakes are numerous, and more or less impregnated with salt. Tusla or Tatta is thirty miles long.

Productive Resources.—Asia Minor has a most salubrious temperature, and is capable of yielding the chief productions of the temperate and of the torrid zones. The forests of oak, pine, beech, lance, ash, walnut, and elm, are magnificent. The vegetables and fruits may vie with those of any country in the world. Opium is largely produced, extensively consumed by the Turks, and is doubtless one important cause of the impoverishment of the country, and

the wretched state of the people. There are extensive droves of Turkoman horses, and beautiful shawl goats. The productions of Asia Minor are but limited, and manufactures are scarcely known, except at Angora. Every kind of game abounds. Iron and copper are plentiful; gold and silver exist in several places, as well as in the sands of Pactolus.

Harbors and Islands.—The western and southwestern shores abound in secure havens, sheltered by numerous islands. Among the latter the principal are Cyprus, Rhodes, Scarpanto, Lesbos or Mytilene, Scio, Tenedos, and other islands in the Hellespont and Ægean sea. The whole region, admirably fitted as it is for the maintenance of maritime power, the extension of commerce, and the support of a nautical population, now only contains a scanty coasting and piratical class, and its maritime traffic is confined to Smyrna.

Population.—The population of Asia Minor is estimated at 5,000,000. The Mohammedans amount to three fourths of the inhabitants.

History.—In the oldest periods of which we have any record, Asia Minor was divided into several independent states, of which Phrygia was the chief. On the extinction of the Phrygian kingdom, the peninsula was possessed by the Lydians and Medes; and on the subversion of the Lydian empire by Cyrus it became subject to the Persian sovereigns. After the death of Alexander the Great, Asia Minor was made a province of the Syrian empire; on the decline of that power, a number of independent chiefs ruled the country, but they were all subdued by the Romans, and Augustus divided the peninsula into three provinces, viz., Proconsular Asia, or the western part; Prætorian Asia, or the northern part; and Consular Asia, or the interior. In the eleventh century the interior of the peninsula and the southeast coast was seized by the Seljookian Turks, after whose downfall the country was conquered by the Osmanli Turks, by whom it was called Nadalii, and divided into pachalics, and the region has ever since been subjected to the government at Constantinople. Asia Minor has, indeed, been renowned. Three of the "seven wise men" of the ancient world (Thales, Bias, and Pittacus) had here their birth, as had also Homer, Herodotus, Æsop, and Pythagoras, the fathers of poetry, history, fable, and philosophy; the riches of the most wealthy king (Crœsus), and the greatest of armies (that of Xerxes), had their origin in this celebrated region, which possessed, of the "nine wonders of the world," the Temple of Ephesus, Mausoleum of Caria, and the Colossus of Rhodes. But now even the sites of many of its great cities are unknown, and the language of a considerable portion of its people only to be ascertained from the inscriptions graven on the vast ruins which remain to attest the high state of civilization of the nation by whom they were constructed.

Syria.—Syria (including the country anciently known as Phœnicia and Palestine, described a few pages hence) is bounded on the north by a branch of the Taurus mountains, on the east by the Euphrates and Syrian desert, on the south by the isthmus of Suez and part of Arabia Petrea, and on the west by the Mediterranean. Its superficial area, exclusive of the Desert, is estimated at 50,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—A varied region of mountains, valleys, and plains. The ridge on the northwest, between Syria and Asia Minor, is termed the Durdan Dagh; from it a chain branches out in a southwesterly direction, called the Alma Dagh or Amanus, which leaves only the narrow passage of the Armenian Gates between it and the gulf of Iskenderoon. As it advances southward it bears the name of Jawur Dagh (infidel mountain), and subsequently that of the Akma Dagh or Beïlan mountains. Near Antioch rises the extraordinary peak of Mount Cassius. The lower part of the mountain is clothed with forests, and surrounded on the south and east by a deep valley celebrated for the production

of fine tobacco, but near the summit it is quite bare, and answers to the name given it by the natives of Jebel-el-Akra, the Bald mountain. From this point the same chain, under different names, winds along the shores of the Mediterranean at an average distance of about twenty-five miles. Mount Lebanon, the most elevated portion, extends between Tripoli and Acre, the true Lebanon ridge terminates at the head of the valley of Baalbec. There are several collateral spurs extending in different directions, and numerous isolated mountains. The northern district of Syria, comprising the region between the Euphrates and Mediterranean, constitutes the pachalic of Aleppo, and is composed of two great plains, that of Antioch on the west, and that of Aleppo on the east; on the north and east are high mountains, separating it from Cilicia and Marash.

Rivers and Lakes.—The principal rivers of Syria are, the Orentes, flowing north into the Mediterranean, a short distance southwest from Antioch, and the Jordan, running south into the Dead sea, besides many small streams from the heights of Lebanon, &c., which water and fertilize the country. Of the lakes of Syria the chief is the well-known Asphaltites or Dead sea. Tiberias, or the lake of Galilee, enclosed by cultivated lands and wooded mountains, forms a rich and picturesque object. The others are the lakes of Damascus, Hems, and Antioch.

Climate.—Near the coasts the climate is hot, humid, and unhealthy; in the mountainous districts cool and salubrious; and on the plains and deserts dry and scorching. The seasons and productions consequently vary, but, well-cultivated, no country could yield more abundant vegetation.

Political Divisions.—The modern pachalics and the ancient divisions are as follows:—

Turkish Pachalics.	Ancient Divisions.
Aleppo	Cyrrhestica, Chalcidene, Seleucia, and the district of Antioch.
Tripoli	Casiotis and Northern Phœnicia.
Acre	Southern Phœnicia, part of Cœlosyria, and Galilee.
Gaza and Damascus	Apame, Palmyrene, the remainder of Cœlosyria, and Palestine.

Productive Resources.—The agricultural produce of Syria is small; this arises from no want of fertile soil, or of capital, but from a deficiency of agricultural population and of live stock. In the districts where hands are found to cultivate the fields production is large, and the return for capital is considerable. But regions of the highest fertility remain fallow, and towns, such as Antioch, surrounded by lands capable of the highest cultivation, are frequently compelled to import corn for internal consumption. The forests of Northern Syria have, since the Egyptian conquest, been drawn upon for large supplies of timber, which is of good quality, and in great abundance. The cotton of Syria is produced from an annual plant, and the crops are therefore, exposed to great vicissitudes. It is seldom sent to the English markets, where it is only adapted to the most common purposes, such as the wicks of candles. That consumed in Syria is used in the manufacture of coarse clothes. The cultivation of silk has, during the last few years, spread rapidly around Beirout. Syrian wool, which is employed for yarn, stockings, surtouts, &c., is principally exported to Italy and France. Of late years considerable attention has been paid to the method of expressing the Syrian oil, which appears likely to become a staple article of export.

Languages.—The languages of Syria are very varied. The old Syriac is confined to a few districts in the vicinity of Damascus and Mount Lebanon, the predominating language being the Arabic; and a patois, called the Nabathean language, derived from the pure Syriac and Chaldee, is much used among the peasantry. Turkish is also spoken in several places. Of literature, the arts, and sciences, there are few traces; and little promise, in the existing state of things, of any immediate improvement.

Religion.—On this vital point Syria presents as great diversity as in popu-

lation and language. The predominating faiths are the Mohammedan and the Christian, from each of which spring a numerous variety of sects, many of whom are violently opposed to one another. The Mohammedans of Syria, constituting probably three fourths of the whole population, occupy chiefly the agricultural districts, are the principal inhabitants of the secondary towns and villages, and, with few exceptions, fill the public offices in the principal cities.

Population.—The aborigines were the descendants of Aram the son of Shem; but the country having been successively invaded and conquered by the Assyrians, Babylonians, Persians, Macedonians, Romans, Arabs, Turks, Crusaders, Mamelukes, and Osmanlies, the existing population is a most motley assemblage, whose number it is almost impossible correctly to estimate. At the time of the Arabian conquest, the population of Syria is thought to have exceeded 9,000,000, and the Syrians must still have been a numerous nation at the period of the crusades. A few years ago the calculation made by government was 1,449,446; the present population is probably not 2,000,000, and is unhappily still decreasing.

History.—From the period when "Richard the Lion-hearted," of England, and Saladin the Saracen, contended for the possession of the Holy Land, Syria has remained in possession of the Turks, and under their sway has declined in population, commerce, and wealth. Previous to the discovery of the sea-route to India, via the Cape of Good Hope, Syria, Mesopotamia, and Babylonia, were the channels through which Asia and Europe interchanged their respective produce: but the removal of this traffic, and the consequent impoverishment of the country, led to the disorganization of the Turkish eastern provinces; the rapid acquirement by Russia of the Crimea and Bessarabia, which, with the Muscovite encroachments on the Asiatic possessions of the Porte, paralyzed the policy of Constantinople, and contributed to the usurpation of Egypt by Mehemet Ali. In November, 1831, his son, Ibrahim Pacha, landed with an army at Kaifa; and Syria, which had successfully resisted the invasion of Napoleon, became the theatre of civil war and devastation. Ibrahim Pacha, having subjected Syria to his rule, divided it into six provinces. The laws by which Mehemet Ali governed Egypt were introduced under the civil government of Sherif Pacha. In 1834 the oppressions of the Egyptian soldiery caused a rebellion in Satt and Karak, which extended toward Jerusalem, where Ibrahim Pacha took refuge. Mehemet Ali embarked at Alexandria, with all the troops he could collect (9,000 men), landed at Jaffa, beheaded three of the chief of the revolt, bribed others to support him, and in one month returned to Egypt, having effectually crushed the insurrection. Ibrahim Pacha then disarmed the people of Damascus and Aleppo, and afterward those of the Lebanon districts and the Druses. In sixteen months he seized more than 80,000 muskets, and a large number of pistols, swords, and cutlasses, which were carried to the arsenal of Acre, and there converted into horse-shoes. Having placed Syria at his mercy, Mehemet Ali and his son, who recognised no other government but that of force, commenced recruiting the Egyptian army by conscripts from Syria, which rendered the people more than ever opposed to their rule. Mehemet and Ibrahim retaliated their hostility with dreadful severities. The sultan of Constantinople being unable to drive the Egyptians from Syria, applied to the government of Great Britain, Russia, Austria, Prussia, and France, for their joint aid. M. Thiers, then premier of France, declined to cooperate, silently abetted Mehemet Ali, and tacitly threatened a rupture with England.. The other European powers abovenamed entered into a convention with the Porte on the 15th of July, 1840, and on Mehemet Ali's refusing to accept the terms offered, force was used. Acre, Beirout, and other places in Syria were captured, and the Egyptians eventually compelled to evacuate the country. Syria was then restored to Turkey.

Palestine.—The "Holy Land" is associated in the mind of the Christian with all that he has been taught from childhood to esteem most venerable and sacred. It was originally named Canaan, from its earliest inhabitants; subsequently the land of Judah and Judea. The appellation most frequently used by the Roman and ancient ecclesiastical writers, is that of Palestine, which it received from the Philistines, the descendants of Mizraim, the second son of Ham, who carried on an important maritime trade, and occupied a narrow strip of very fertile country, extending about sixty miles along the coast, from the river of Egypt nearly to the bay of Joppa.

Boundaries.—In the 34th chapter of Numbers the limits of the land of Canaan are specifically declared, but the extreme difficulty attendant upon the translation of the Hebrew language in a matter necessarily involving minute topographical detail, renders the text extremely obscure, and prevents our forming any very accurate estimate of the extent of this small but most interesting country. It is, however, evident, that Mount Hor (not the Mount Hor on which Aaron died) in the Libanus chain formed a distinguishing feature on the northern border; Beersheba, the Wilderness of Edom, and the Desert of Zin, were on the southern frontier; the eastern border was formed by the country of the Moabites, the Dead sea, the Jordan, the sea of Galilee, and the Jordan again extending a little way beyond the sources of that river. The western boundary was to be the Mediterranean, but the want of faith, and disobedience of the Israelites, prevented the realization of this promise, they desisted from expelling the Phœnicians (known in Scripture as the people of Tyre and Sidon) and Philistines, and left them in possession of the most important places on the coast. The 3d chapter of Deuteronomy contains a full account of the conquest of the trans-Jordanic territories subsequently allotted to the tribes of Reuben, Gad, and the half-tribe of Manassah. By the victories of David and Solomon, the kingdom of Israel was extended from sea to sea; that is, from the Mediterranean to the Red sea, and from the Euphrates to the brook Sihon, or torrent of El Arish, on the frontiers of Egypt; but this enlarged dominion lasted only for a brief period.

Divisions.—The distribution by Joshua of the land occupies a considerable portion of the book of Joshua. Modern Palestine is under the dominion of the pachas of Acre and Damascus, the former ruling the coast, the latter the interior and by far the greater portion, including Jerusalem, Hebron, Shechem, and Tiberias.

Mountains.—The mountains of Lebanon, the root of the whole mountain system of Palestine, are themselves ramifications of the great South Taurus range, which descends from Syria in two parallel ridges, distinguished by geographers as Libanus (Lebanon), and Anti-Libanus. Libanus approaches the coast and terminates near the river Leontes, about five miles to the north of ancient Tyre, while Anti-Libanus, on entering Palestine, divides into two branches, one of which diverges in a southwesterly direction toward the coast, and the other descends southward for about forty miles, under the name of Jebel-esh-Sheik. The height of Anti-Libanus is about 9,000 feet, but the higher peaks are supposed to considerably exceed this calculation. From Anti-Libanus a chain extends to the southern extremity of Palestine, and may be traced along the east side of the Jordan and the Dead sea, under the denomination of "the mountains of Gilead" and "of Abarim." Another branch, originating in that before described as diverging from Anti-Libanus toward the Mediterranean coast, descends through the centre of the country west of the Jordan, forming "the Mountains of Israel," of "Ephraim and of Judah." Mount Carmel or Jebel Mar Elyas, forms a bold promontory on the south side of the bay of Acre, and is the termination of a series of groups branching out from the central ridge. Mount Tabor, the supposed scene of our Lord's transfiguration, is situated on

the east of the plain of Esdraelon, two leagues southeast from Nazareth, and rises to a height of above 1,000 feet, in the figure of a cone with the upper part struck off. The mountain is finely wooded, and adorned with various kinds of plants and flowers. Mounts Ebal and Gerizim are each about 900 feet from the base, separated by a narrow and fruitful valley, in which stands the town of Nabulus (Shechem). Among the mountains which bound the plains of Jericho on the east is one exceeding high, which is called Quarantana, as it is supposed to be the scene of our Savior's forty days fast. It is steep and of dangerous ascent, at the top is a small chapel, and another halfway up, on a prominent part of the rock. The Mount of Olives, in a general sense, is a range of hills to the east of Jerusalem, that to which this designation is especially applied, and from which our Savior ascended to heaven, is the centre of the three chief summits. Its height is 2,556 feet.

Rivers.—The Jordan, or Urdun, from being the only stream in Palestine continually flowing, and from its numerous scriptural associations, has acquired a distinction which its geographical importance does not merit. The width of the river varies, according to the season, from 30 to 100 yards, but its channel being now worn very deep, its overflowings are considerably diminished. After a course of about 150 miles, during which it receives many small streams, especially from the mountainous district of Hauran, it discharges into the Dead sea a turbid and rapid volume of water, and is there absorbed. At the spot pointed out as the scene of our Lord's baptism, thousands of pilgrims are annually baptized. The Jabbok or Zurka rises in the southeast of Gilead, and after a course of about forty miles due east and west, falls into the Jordan. The Arnon, which once divided the kingdom of Moab from the territory of Reuben, now under the name of the Modjeb, separates the provinces of Belka and of Kerek. The river Kishon falls into the bay of Acre after a course of about thirty miles, but, like the generality of streams in this country, is a mere brook during the greater part of the year.

Seas or Lakes.—The Dead sea, or "Lacus Asphaltus," is forty miles in length from north to south, and ten miles from east to west; the soundings are in many places 1,800 feet deep; the surface is 1,407 feet below the level of the Mediterranean, and 1,446 feet below the level of the Red sea. It is surrounded by cliffs 1,500 to 2,500 feet in height on the eastern side of the vale of Sodom, and at the southwestern extremity there is a great mountain of salt, the base of which passes under the lake. The weight of the water compared with pure water is as three to two. No fish will live in it, nor will any useful plant grow on its shores. The site which the Dead sea now occupies was formerly, in part if not wholly, a fertile and populous plain, on which stood the cities of Sodom, Gomorrah, Admah, and Zeboim. The deep and precipitous valleys, the masses of bare and shattered rocks, and the solitude which prevails, render this region, once compared to the "garden of the Lord," one of the most dreary and desolate spots on the face of the earth. The apples of Sodom, mentioned by Josephus, grow upon a shrub (*the Oöcher*) fifteen feet high, with a stem of two or more feet in diameter; the fruit hangs in clusters of three or four together; they are fair to the eye, but on being pressed explode, and leave in the hand only shreds and fibres. The sea of Galilee, called also in scripture the lake of Tiberias, or of Genesareth, is situated about seventy miles north of the Dead sea. It is of an irregular oval shape, the extreme length from north to south being about twelve miles, and the greatest breadth five miles. It is everywhere surrounded by a chain of rocky, bare, and brown-colored mountains, which throughout its circumference rise abruptly from the borders of the lake almost to equal heights. The view of the sea or lake from the castle of Tiberias is very striking. The water is as clear as the purest crystal, sweet, cool, and most refreshing to the taste. Enclosed by hills, the sea of Galilee is gen-

erally tranquil, but sudden gusts of wind from the mountains make it liable to squalls, rough weather, and high waves, which are, however, seldom of long duration. The "Waters of Merom" is, according to Josephus, seven miles long by three and a half broad, but this must refer to its condition while swollen by the melted snows of Lebanon; at other times it is little more than an extensive marsh, covered along the brink and in the shallow parts with reeds and rushes.

Chief Cities and Towns.—Jerusalem, the capital of Judea, was built at distinct successive periods on a plateau, or series of elevations of different heights, which were separated from the surrounding "hill country" by deep valleys and ravines that enclosed the parallelogram on which the city was constructed on three sides; the fourth merged into the surrounding elevations.* One of the deepest of these valleys, running north and south, is known as the vale of Jehoshaphat, through which the brook Kedron ran. On the east side the land gradually rose into a "three-topped hill," the Mount of Olives, previously mentioned. The valley of Tophet lay to the south, at right angles with the valley of Jehoshaphat. The valley of Rephaim or Gihon, the least of the three, being a continuation of the second, which turned to the north. The highest hill within the circle of these valleys is Mount Sion, a conical eminence, of an oblong form, in the southwest. Jerusalem was called Jebus, when its king, Adonizedek, was captured and slain by Joshua; subsequently, when the lower part

* Jerusalem is built on the summit ridge of the hill country of Palestine, just where it begins to slope eastward. Not half a mile from the Jaffa gate the waters run toward the Mediterranean. It is about 2,700 feet above the latter, and 4,000 feet above the Dead sea, to which the descent is much more abrupt. The hill, or rather group of small mounts, on which Jerusalem stands, slants eastward to the brink of the valley of Jehoshaphat, and the mount of Olives rises opposite, so that from its sides and summit one sees the entire city spread out like a map before him. The valley of Hinnom, the bed of which is on a much higher level than that of Jehoshaphat, skirts the southwestern and southern part of the walls, and drops into the latter valley at the foot of Mount Sion, the most southern of the mounts. The steep slope at the junction of the two valleys is the site of the city of the Jebusites, the most ancient part of Jerusalem. It is now covered with garden-terraces, the present wall crossing from Mount Sion on the south to Mount Moriah on the east. A little glen, anciently called the Tyropeon, divides the mounts, and winds through to the Damascus gate, on the north, though from the height of the walls and the position of the city, the depression which it causes in the mass of buildings is not very perceptible, except from the latter point. Moriah is the lowest of the mounts, and hangs directly over the valley of Jehoshaphat. Its summit was built up by Solomon so as to form a quadrangular terrace, 500 by 300 yards. The lower courses of the grand wall, composed of huge blocks of gray conglomerated limestone, still remain, and there seems to be no doubt that they are of the time of Solomon. Some of the stones are of enormous size; I noticed several which were fifteen, and one twenty-two feet in length. The upper part of the wall was restored by Sultan Selim, the conqueror of Egypt, and the level of the terrace now supports the great Mosque of Omar, which stands on the very site of the temple. Except these foundation walls, the Damascus gate and the tower of Hippicus, there is nothing left of the ancient city. The length of the present wall of circumference is about two miles, but the circuit of Jerusalem in the time of Herod was probably double that distance. The best views of the city are from the mount of Olives, and the hill north of it, whence Titus directed the siege which resulted in its total destruction. The Crusaders under Godfrey of Bouillon encamped on the same hill. My first walk after reaching here was to the summit of the mount of Olives. Not far from the hotel we came upon the Via Dolorosa, up which, according to catholic tradition, Christ toiled with the cross upon his shoulders. An arch is built across the street at the spot where they say Christ was shown to the populace. The passage is steep and rough, descending to St. Stephen's gate by the governor's palace, standing on the site of the house of Pontius Pilate. Here, in the wall forming the northern part of the foundation of the temple, there are some very fine remains of ancient workmanship. From the city wall the ground descends abruptly to the valley of Jehoshaphat. The Turkish residents have their tombs on the city side, just under the terrace of the mosque, while thousands of Jews find a peculiar beatitude in having themselves interred on the opposite slope of the mount of Olives, which is in some places quite covered with their crumbling tombstones. Jerusalem internally gives no impression but that of filth, ruin, poverty, and degradation. There are two or three streets in the western or higher portion of the city which are tolerably clean, but all the others, to the very gates of the holy sepulchre, are channels of pestilence. This building is a confused labyrinth of chapels, choirs, shrines, staircases, and vaults, without any architectural beauty, though very rich in parts, and full of picturesque effects. Golden lamps continually burn before the sacred places. The sepulchre is a small marble building in the centre of the church; forty lamps of gold burn unceasingly above the white marble slab, which, as the monks say, protects the stone whereon the body of Christ was laid. There is, however, little evidence of the identity of this spot with the true sepulchre. By far the most interesting relic left to the city is the foundation-wall of Solomon's Temple. The Mosque of Omar, according to the accounts of the Turks and Mr. Catherwood's examination, rests on immense vaults, which are believed to be the substructions of the temple itself. Under the dome of the mosque there is a large mass of natural rock, revered by the Moslems as that from which Mohammed mounted the beast Borak, when he visited the seven heavens, and believed by Mr. Catherwood to have served as part of the foundation of the holy of holies. No Christian is allowed to enter the mosque, or even its enclosure, on penalty of death, and even the firman of the sultan has failed to obtain admission for a Frank. The roof of the governor's palace overlooks the entire enclosure of the harem, and gives a complete view of the exterior of the mosque and the paved court surrounding it. There is no regularity in the style of the buildings in the enclosure, but the general effect is highly picturesque. The great dome of the mosque is the grandest in all the Orient, but the body of the edifice, made to resemble an octagonal tent, and covered with blue and white tiles, is not high enough to do it justice. The first court is paved with marble, and has four porticoes, each of five light Saracenic arches, opening into the green park which occupies the rest of the terrace. This park is studded with cypress and fig trees, and dotted all over with the tombs of the shekhs.—Bayard Taylor.

was taken by the tribes of Judah and Benjamin, the Jebusites remained in the upper. David led his forces against the "stronghold of Zion." captured it, fixed his residence there, and it became the centre of all civil and religious affairs. On the revolt of the ten tribes it ceased to be the metropolis of Israel, but was still the royal city of Judah and Benjamin. On five successive occasions it was conquered and despoiled. Nebuchadnezzar razed its walls, and destroyed the temple of Solomon with fire. It was rebuilt in virtue of a decree of Cyrus, king of Persia, and, after enduring divers vicissitudes, was captured by the Romans, under Pompey, B. C. 63. Herod the Great rebuilt the second temple, and left the city much adorned and enlarged, as it remained during the ministry of our Savior, whose prophecies of its fearful destruction were fulfilled to the letter in A. D. 70. One million of the Jews perished during the siege, 97,000 were taken prisoners, and the city and its walls were razed to the ground. The emperor Adrian, in 118, rebuilt the city, called it Ælia, and allowed no Jew to enter it. Constantine restored the old name, and permitted the Jews to enter once a year, to weep over the destruction of their "holy and beautiful house." The Persians took the city in 614, and massacred 90,000 Christians; and it subsequently fell into the power of the Mohammedans, from whom it was for a short time rescued by the valor and zeal of the Crusaders; but the followers of the crescent ultimately triumphed over the gallant Christian knights, and Jerusalem, with the rest of the Holy Land, has since remained subject to the Saracens, or to the Turks. The Mohammedans have, of late years, relaxed much of their hostility to the Jews and the Christians; and the sultan of Constantinople, since the expulsion of the Egyptians under Ibrahim Pacha, and the restoration by England, Austria, and Russia, of the Holy Land to the dominion of the Turks, has permitted the construction of a Christian church on Mount Sion, and the creation of a bishopric. The population fluctuates in number. It is estimated at about 20,000, of whom 5,000 are said to be Christians, 10,000 Jews, and 5,000 Turks. It is still a walled city, and from its position is well calculated for the capital of Palestine.

Bethlehem, six miles southeast of Jerusalem, beautifully situated in the midst of a pastoral district on the brow of the mountains of Judea, is first mentioned in scripture in connection with the death of Rachel, next with the narrative of Ruth, then as the birthplace of David, and finally as the spot on which the divine Savior first appeared on earth, bearing to mankind "good tidings of great joy." From the richness of the surrounding country in corn, wine, and oil, it received the name Bethlehem, the *House of Bread*, Ephratah, the *fruitful*. It is still a pleasant village, in the undisturbed possession of about 3,000 Christians. The "Grotto of the Nativity" is hewn out of the solid rock, and entered by two spiral staircases. A rich altar is erected over the spot where our Redeemer is supposed to have been born, and the floor is inlaid with marble. Bethany, about fifteen furlongs to the northeast of Jerusalem, is now a very poor village, inhabited by a few Arabs. Emmaus is a little village, about eight miles northwest of Jerusalem, inhabited chiefly by Christians. A few miles from it is a town bearing the name of Ramleh, supposed to be the Arimathea of the New Testament, which stands on a large and very fertile plain. Joppa or Jaffa is the principal port of Palestine, and the only one in Judea. Its distance from Jerusalem is about forty miles, and its excellent position for trading with the coast and islands of the Mediterranean gave it great importance, although it never appears to have been a safe or commodious harbor. The town is built on a conical promontory jutting out into the sea, and rising about 150 feet above its level; being surrounded on the land side by richly productive gardens, fenced with hedges of the prickly pear, stocked with orange, lemon, pomegranate, and fig trees, besides watermelons of delicious flavor. Hebron lies about twenty-seven miles to the south of Jerusalem, and is represented by a small but neat

town called El Khulil. Samaria, the ancient capital of the revolted tribes, was formerly confounded with Shechem, but is now generally identified with a site about eight miles from that city. Shechem is a thriving town, with about 2,000 Moslem inhabitants, some Christians and Jews, with a few Samaritans. The lovely plain of Sharon extends for nearly 120 miles along the coast, and is bounded on the south by the territory of the Philistines, of whose five chief cities, Ashdod, Ekron, Gath, Ascalon, and Gaza, the last, now called Guzzeh, alone retains any importance. It now contains about 15,000 inhabitants. Ascalon, though from its difficult access never of great consequence as a seaport, was anciently accounted the most impregnable town on the Philistine coast, and was a strong city in the time of the Crusades. The prophecy has been fulfilled, and Ascalon is now "a desolation."

Phœnicia occupied the northern part of the coast as far as Mount Carmel, and contained the famous cities of Tyre and Sidon; the latter of which is said to have been founded by the son of Canaan, whose name it bears. The greatness of Sidon lay in the extent of its maritime commerce, which it would appear to have been the first nation to establish. Its people are frequently mentioned by Homer as excelling in many ingenious and useful arts, and skilled in navigation. Sidon exhibited the fulfilment of the prophecies of Jeremiah; was repeatedly plundered, and almost destroyed; and is now an inconsiderable place under the name of Saida. On Tyre (originally a colony of Sidon), the most important commercial city in the world, has been literally fulfilled the prophecies of Joel, Amos, Isaiah, and Ezekiel; it is now a wretched village—"like the top of a rock, a place to spread nets upon." Its destruction by Alexander the Great, verified in an extraordinary manner the very words of scripture.

Acre, twenty-seven miles south of Tyre, known as Accho in the Old Testament, subsequently named Ptolemais, by the first of the Ptolemies, Akka, by the Arabs, and St. Jean d'Acre, by the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, is a place of great strength, situated on the northern angle of the bay to which it has given the name. It has for ages been viewed as the maritime key of Palestine, and undergone many sieges and assaults since the year 636, when it was taken from the Christians by the Saracens, to its recent capture by the English from the Egyptian troops under Ibrahim Pacha.

Nazareth, a frontier town of Galilee, the resort of various people, is picturesquely situated amidst a cluster of uncultivated hills. It is now a well-built town, with 3,000 inhabitants, of whom two thirds are Christians.

Damascus, probably the oldest city in the world, is mentioned in scripture as the birthplace of Eliezer, the steward of Abraham. It is said by Josephus to have been founded by Uz, the grandson of Noah. In the time of David Damascus was an important independent state, and reduced to subjection by that monarch. In the reign of Solomon Damascus regained its independence, and during the wars arising from the separation of the kingdoms of Israel and Judah, it was engaged in a series of contests, until Ahaz, king of Judah, purchased the aid of Tiglath-Pileser, king of Assyria, by whom it was destroyed. It afterward became a province of Babylon: then of the Persian and Macedonian empires; next of Arabia, subsequently of the Greek empire, when it was the most celebrated city of the east, remarkable for its wealth, luxury, magnificence, and numerous Christian population. Soon after the establishment of Mohammedanism, Damascus became the capital of the mussulman world, and was famed during the history of the crusades. Since the time of Saladin it has been a Mohammedan city, and is now a pachalic of Turkey. Situated near the east slopes of Anti-Lebanon, 2,237 feet above the sea, and occupying the centre of a tract of productive fields and luxuriant gardens, with about eighty villages—it has been termed "an emerald in the desert," the "eye of the east," the Eden of the Mohammedans. The plain on which the city stands is bounded on

three sides by lofty, bare, and rugged mountains ; the approach is surpassingly beautiful, through groves of cypress, olive, and walnut trees ; with murmuring rivulets on all sides, supplied by the river Baruda, the ancient Pharphar. The "City of Joy," as it has been designated, forms a triangle, one side of which extends nearly three miles northwest by west, is surrounded by the remains of its ancient walls, and has a castellated citadel. In the centre of the town is a spacious bazar, constructed of black and white marble in alternate courses ; a grand Saracenic gateway opens into a large paved court, with a handsome marble fountain in the centre, and around it an arcade with pointed arches and rich Saracenic mouldings. In the arcade are piled heaps of merchandise, above it is a spacious corridor, with counting houses used by the principal merchants. The houses are constructed of sun-dried bricks, and have a mean appearance, but the interior is generally magnificent. It is celebrated for its numerous coffee-houses, confectioners, and cookshops, of which latter there are about 400. It has many silk manufactories, jewellers, silversmiths, white and coppersmiths, trunk and tent makers, and it excels in articles of leather manufacture. The population, with the addition of Bedouins and Druses, is estimated at 200,000 souls, of whom about 150,000 are permanent residents ; about 5,000 are Jews, 11,000 Armenians and Greeks, and a great part of the remainder are Turks.

Population.—Palestine must for ages have probably had not less than twenty millions of inhabitants ; now it does not contain above half a million, and of these the Jews form but a small portion ; the remainder consists of mussulmans, and members of the Roman catholic, Greek, and Syrian churches. It is difficult to give any accurate statement of the population of the principal cities of Palestine, as the estimates made by different writers are so vague and various ; for instance, Jerusalem is given at from 10,000 to 30,000 ; Damascus, at from 100,000 to 200,000 ; Nazareth, at from 2,000 to 4,000.

Armenia.—Turkish Armenia is picturesque and well-situated, abounding in lofty mountains, rich valleys, and precipitous torrents. Between the northern and southern boundaries there are five distinct parallel mountain ranges, some very lofty and covered with snow. On its southeast border is the celebrated Mount Ararat, which is an object of veneration to the natives, as well as to Christians and Jews. There is a smaller elevation contiguous, called the "Lesser Ararat." The elevation of the "Great Ararat" has never been ascertained ; the estimates formed are from 17,250 to 20,000 feet. Sir R. Ker Porter, who had a fine view of this monument of the antediluvian world, says : "It seemed as if the largest mountains in the world had been piled on each other, to form this one sublime immensity of ice, and earth, and rock, and snow." The whole country around rests on a basaltic base ; Ararat, and the adjacent Mount Sevellan (13,000 feet above the sea), have long been considered as the cones of extinct volcanoes, and on the 2d of July, 1840, vast masses of earth and snow were precipitated from Mount Ararat ; the village of Akhoura, with all its inhabitants, was totally buried, and torrents of melted snow poured from the mountain, devastating fields and orchards to the distance of seven miles. The Armenians, in their own language, call themselves Hai-Kani, a name which they assert to be derived from King Haikh, the grandson of Japhet. The Armenians were converted to Christianity by Gregory, but do not appear to have had an alphabet until the fifth century. They were considered orthodox Christians until the middle of the sixth century, when they adopted the Eutychian creed, namely, that Christ had only one nature, and that his body was divine and incorruptible, and not created of the substance of the virgin. To this dogma they have resolutely adhered, and rejected on this point the creeds of both the Romish and Greek churches, as steadily as the Mohammedan faith, by which they are surrounded. The population is estimated at 1,700,000 to 2,000,000. Their

church is ruled by patriarchs, who have under them archbishops and bishops. Erzeroum, the chief city of Armenia, is well-situated in a long narrow plain, bounded on either side by lofty mountains; it has a population of about 100,000, and an extensive trade with the other cities of Asiatic Turkey, and also with Persia, Russia, &c.

Mesopotamia.—Mesopotamia or Al-Jezeerah is divided on the north from Armenia by a lofty range of mountains. Its name signifies the "region between the rivers" (the Euphrates and Tigris), and corresponds with the Hebrew term Shinar, or Shene-Nahar. The word Mesopotamia was not used until after the Macedonian conquest. The country is about 400 miles long by 150 to 220 broad, and, with the exception of two mountain ranges, is a level country. The Euphrates forms its boundary on the Syrian or western side, for 150 miles; on the northeast and southeast the Tigris runs a sinuous course of more than 350 miles. The Khabour and the Huali are considerable rivers, and there is no lack of other streams to fertilize the soil. Yet this region, once so rich and luxuriant, plentifully adorned with forests and plains, from its beauty called by the Greeks "District of Roses," is now in many parts desolate, with neither trees nor shrubs; the soil has become sterile and sandy, except in the immediate vicinity of rivers; and most of the southern division of Mesopotamia, which once contained many populous towns, has now the dreary loneliness of a desert. Mesopotamia was originally peopled by the descendants of Aram, the son of Shem. Orfa or Urfah, is supposed to be the site of the Ur of the Chaldees, where Abraham dwelt before he came to Haran, on his road to the promised land. Haran is eight hours journey from Urfah, and on the direct road to the ford over the Euphrates, on the route to Palestine. Everything around Urfah bears, in name, some relation to Abraham, whose memory is held in the highest veneration by all classes, Mohammedans, Jews, and Christians. Even the fish in Abraham's lake are considered sacred. Haran is celebrated as the abode, in ancient times, of the Sabeans, or worshippers of the stars. It was the scene of the defeat of Crassus and the Roman legions by the Parthians. Diarbekir or Diyar-Bekr, the capital of the pachalic of the same name, is situated on the Tigris, and has a population of about 30,000. It has, together with Urfah and Mousul, a considerable trade with Aleppo carried on by means of camels; of which as many as 5,000 sometimes form a caravan, each conveying at least 500 pounds. There are several Christian and Turkish merchants at Diyar-Bekr, Urfah, and Mousul, who import cotton-twist, calicoes, prints, muslins, nankeens, and colonial produce; the returns are in specie, galls, and grain, to Aleppo. Some of the Mesopotamian merchants import their goods direct from England through Aleppo agents. Descending the Euphrates, Dara and Nisibis are famed for their ruins. Those of the latter occupy a space of more than three miles. The catacombs of Dara are very numerous, and cut in a hard freestone rock. Some of them are twenty feet above the ground. On the eastern frontier of Mesopotamia, and on the right bank of the Tigris, is the ancient city of Mousul, long supposed to be near the site of Nineveh or Nimroud, and now proved to be so by the wonderful discoveries of Mr. Layard and M. Botta, disclosing the remains of temples, palaces, paintings, sculptures, utensils, &c., in excellent preservation, after having been buried beneath the sands for 3,000 years, by which the truth of the scriptural record is marvellously verified. The great mounds on the banks of the Tigris, opposite Mousul, over which corn has been grown for ages, conceal extensive cities of the Assyrian monarchy, built, as it were, in continuation, in the same manner as Babylon, Seleucia, Ctesiphon, and Bagdad, succeeded each other on sites at no great intervals, which caused them to be spoken of as one city. In this portion of Mesopotamia are a singular race, termed the Yezedis, or devil worshippers.

Koordistan.—Koordistan, situated between Mesopotamia and Persia, is about 300 miles long by 130 broad. It is the country of the Koords; very mountainous and rugged, but well-watered and with fertile valleys. Its inhabitants are estimated at 1,000,000 to 1,200,000, and are described as a fine race of men, with a white complexion, animated physiognomy, and great capacity of arduous enterprise. The Turkish Koords are a settled race, the Persian Koords are nomadic and predatory. About 100,000 of the people are Nestorian Christians, and acknowledge the authority of two hereditary patriarchs. Mohammedanism is here blended with various relics of the Magian and the Manichean systems. The people live in a feudal state: every village has a chief, whose authority is acknowledged only so long as he is able to enforce it. Agriculture is in a rude condition, and there is but little trade with the provinces. The Chaldean Christians inhabit districts of the country on either side of the Tigris, and are said to number 500,000, who constantly live with arms in their hands, to preserve their independence. When Christianity was introduced is not known.

Irak-Arabi.—Irak-Arabi is an extensive but deserted region; once populous and fertile, now inhabited only by hordes of wandering Arabs, true descendants of Ishmael, every man's hand being against his neighbor. The Turkish pachalic of Bagdad includes the regions anciently known as Babylonia, Chaldea, a great portion of Assyria, and the whole of Mesopotamia, and at one period must have contained many millions; at present there are, probably, not 1,200,000 people in the whole pachalic, and the spots on which the vast cities of Nineveh, Babylon, and many others flourished, do not now contain a single inhabitant, although Babylonia and Assyria were once famed for their fertility and riches. Bussorah, near the head of the Persian gulf, is a city of great commercial importance, and has an active population estimated at 100,000. Bagdad City has a population of 65,000, and is well situated on the banks of the Tigris, about 190 miles above its junction with the Euphrates.

ARABIA.

This ancient and celebrated country forms the southwestern extremity of Asia, and occupies the largest peninsula in the world. It is bounded on the north by part of Syria and Turkey in Asia, on the east by Turkey in Asia, the Persian gulf, and the gulf of Oman or Ormuz, on the south and southwest by the Indian ocean and the straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, and on the west by the Red sea and the gulf and isthmus of Suez. Its shape is that of an irregular quadrangle, measuring in its greatest length about 1,700 miles, and in its greatest breadth 1,100, and having an area of about 850,000 square miles. It lies between 12° and 35° north latitude, and between 33° 30′ and 60° east longitude.

Physical Aspect.—Arabia forms a great plateau, supported on all sides by an immense mountain buttress, and encircled with a flat sandy belt. One mountain range runs from the isthmus of Suez to the southern parallel of the Red sea, at a distance varying from thirty to eighty miles; along the southern coast the chain approaches close to the Indian ocean; that along the Persian gulf is less regular, and is broken by a range which stretches from the gulf of Oman to Mecca. The Chaldean mountains extend from the head of the Persian gulf to Syria. In Arabia Petrea is situated the mountainous peninsula of Sinai, and the desert of El Tih or Agheyl; the celebrated mounts, Hor, Wadi Musa, Moab,

Ammon, and the country northward of Bosra, as far as Ezra. The name of this region well expresses its character; it consists of sandy plains, rocky ridges, circular belts of stone, separated by deep and narrow crevices which are crossed with difficulty, and interspersed with few fertile tracts; and yet this now arid region, peopled by a few wandering Arab tribes, was once the seat of splendid Roman cities, and the cavernous and rock-bound city of Petra. The capital of Arabia Petrea derived great importance from the immense traffic carried on in these at present desolate regions. Mount Sinai is the highest peak (7,530 feet) of an enormous mass of red granite rocks, 150 miles southeast of Suez, in the centre of a gloomy desert. At the foot of the mount is the Greek convent of St. Catharine; steps are cut in the rock for ascending Mount Sinai, and on the ascent is a fine spring of water, where a small chapel has been built, and dedicated to the Virgin. On the summit stands a mosque, and thirty paces lower a dilapidated Christian church. Djebel (Mount) Oreb or Horeb is one of the eminences of Sinai. Mount Hor, on which is the supposed tomb of Aaron, overlooks the ruins of Petra. Petra was the capital of Idumea, and hewn entirely out of the sides of a mountain of solid porphyry. A temple richly carved, and in a fine state of preservation, still exists, amidst countless multitudes of private dwellings and tombs, ornamented with columns cut out of the solid rock, and the ruins of the once-famed city are tenanted by wild beasts and birds of prey, and overgrown with luxurious weeds, which render the narrow ravine, overhung by precipitous cliffs, almost impassable.

Rivers and Seas.—There are no rivers, in the strict acceptation of the term, in Arabia. The most important streams are the Astan and the Falg, both falling into the Persian gulf; the Massora and the Poim, emptying themselves into the Indian ocean; a nameless stream, falling into the same ocean on the confines of Yemen and Hadramaut; and the Meidam and Zebid, in the southern part of Yemen. But these and every other stream of running water known to exist in this country, have more or less the character of occasional torrents. But few of these streams are perennial, and those are reduced to insignificance during the dry season. But under the influence of the periodical rains they swell to an immense size, and sometimes make new channels, changing, in this way, the appearance of the coast, and leading to contradictory statements as to the number and embouchures of the different streams. The seas which wash Arabia are of the highest commercial importance, and have been celebrated from the first ages for their many advantages, and are intimately connected with some of the most interesting events in the history of mankind. The Red sea is a great inlet of the Indian ocean, extending in a northwesterly direction, between Arabia and Africa, a distance of 1,400 miles, with a breadth varying from 120 to 200 miles. In its northern portion it is divided into two smaller gulfs, those of Suez and Akaba. The Red sea is full of coral reefs, and the central navigable channel narrow, but very deep. It communicates with the ocean by the strait of Bab-el-Mandeb (gate of tears), formed by the approach of the Ras Bab-el-Mandeb and the Ras Sejan; the former on the Arabian side, and the latter, a gloomy-looking peak projecting from the African coast. Beyond the strait is the gulf of Arabia, Aden or Bab-el-Mandeb, which extends east and west nearly 600 miles, with an almost uniform breadth of about 200 miles. On the south coast of Arabia is the large open bay of Koorya-Moorya. The gulf of Oman extends 320 miles from southeast to southwest, between Arabia and Persia, and where it meets the Persian gulf has only a width of about forty miles.

Climate.—In general, the climate of Arabia is similar to that of Northern Africa. Lying under the tropic it has, of course, its succession of dry and rainy seasons. During the dry season a cloud is scarcely seen. On the mountains of Yemen the showers fall regularly from the middle of June till the end

of September; but in the plain country on the coast a whole year frequently passes without a drop of rain. The temperature in the low coast district is intense, frequently rising to 100° Fahrenheit in the shade. In the desert the cold of night is in proportion to the heat of day.

Productive Resources.—The Indian fig, date, palm, banana, almond, apricot, pear, apple, quince, orange, acacia (which produces the gum-arabic), with the balsam-tree and tamarind, abound, and produce many articles of commercial importance. There is, however, little timber fit for building, the woods generally being light and porous. Other important products are coffee, indigo, storax, castor-oil plant, senna, aloes, sesamum, cotton, sugar-cane, betel, nutmeg, and many dye-yielding plants. Wheat, corn, beans, barley, &c., are produced in the plains of Yemen and other fertile districts. The minerals of Arabia are few, and confined to iron, lead, and rock-salt. The horse of Arabia is a noble animal, spirited, active, and of the most generous temper; and it has been described as the most compact piece of powerful and efficient mechanism in the brute creation, but it is of small size, and not remarkable for beauty. The best horses are bred in the Syrian deserts. Next in importance to the horse in Arabia is the camel. They are of two varieties, the dromedary or swift camel, and the common working camel. Other useful animals are asses, oxen, cows, sheep, &c.

Political Divisions.—Its general and well-known divisions are, Arabia Petrea on the north, Arabia Deserta on the east, and Arabia Felix on the west. On the north coast of the Red sea is the Hedjaz, or land of pilgrimage of the Moslems, which includes Mecca and Medina. Yemen Proper, or Araby the Blest, comprises the districts south of the Nedjaz (or Nejaz), to the Bab-el-Mandeb gulf, and embraces the dominions of the imaum of Sana, the sultan of Kaukeban, and other chiefs. The high country in the province of Yemen is called Djebal, the lower portion is styled the Tehama or Sandy Plain; El Hadramaut extends along the shores of the Indian ocean, and embraces the mountainous regions of Seger and Mahrah, governed by independent sheiks. More to the north is the province of Oman, on the gulf of the same name. On the Persian gulf shores Lachsa and Bahrein, governed by the reigning sheik of Beni Khaled. On this coast the East India Company possess some islands; the inland districts comprise El Aredh or Nedjid, Yemama or Kherdje, Aneyzeh, Zedeyr, Woshem, and other places in Arabia Deserta. The Hedjaz, or holy land of the Moslems, has a continuation of the chain of mountains commencing at Mount Sinai, and passing through its centre, leaving a sandy plain near the sea. Hedjaz has several productive districts. Jiddah, the most active commercial port in the Red sea, is a fortified town, in 21° 23′ 14″ north latitude, and 39° 6′ east longitude, contains about 20,000 inhabitants. Mecca, thirteen leagues east of the Red sea, and seventy south of Medina, is situated in a narrow sandy valley, built of stone, and has one of the largest mosques in the world, called Beitallah or house of God. It contained at one time about 100,000 inhabitants, and has now about 20,000. Medina, which contains the tomb of "the Prophet," in a great mosque called El-Harem, is situated on the edge of the Great Arabian Desert. It has a population of about 20,000. Mecca and Medina derive their chief support from the numerous pilgrims who annually visit the "holy cities." Yemen is the finest province in Arabia, and contains about 53,000 square miles, and 2,500,000 inhabitants. The chief towns are Sana, Mocha, and Aden, now occupied by the British. Nedjid, the largest province of Arabia, is 640 miles from north to south, and 750 miles from east to west. It is elevated, diversified with mountains, valleys, and plains, celebrated for their excellent pastures, where the finest horses in the world are reared. The desert of Nedjid extends 300 miles in length by 180 in breadth, and in summer, from its lack of water, is untenanted. We know scarce anything of

the south coast of Arabia, and but little of the Oman province; the whole is uninteresting, and almost in the state of a desert. Muskat, the capital, is situated on the east side of an inlet, forming an inner and outer cove, sheltered by the surrounding rocky hills, which encircle an excellent harbor. It is quite an Arab town, with narrow streets, minarets, palaces, and houses indiscriminately mixed together, and presenting an animated scene from its being a port of considerable trade. The imaum of Muscat's dominions extend down the coast of Eastern Africa to Zanzibar. The pirate coast, for a distance of 350 miles on the Persian gulf, is imperfectly known; it is studded with islands, and full of coves, bays, and rocky shallows. Bahrein town and coast are chiefly noted for pearl and coral fisheries.

Commerce.—Arabia was famed for its commerce and carrying trade in the days of Abraham and of Lot; the myrrh, balsams, and frankincense of Arabia, and the spicery, silks, and cottons of India and China, were exchanged for slaves, ivory, gold-dust, corn, fine linen, and carpets. Tyre long maintained considerable trade with Arabia, and in the time of Solomon, commerce was in full activity by the route of Tadmor. The discovery of a route to India by the cape of Good Hope destroyed the carrying trade between Europe and Asia via Arabia.

Population.—The term Arab, in Hebrew, as also in the Arabian language, signifies a multitude of different tribes, and such is, even in the present day, the character of the population. There is no possibility of ascertaining the number of inhabitants. Balbi estimates the number at 10,000,000, others at 12,000,000. They are divided into two classes, the Arabs of the desert, or Bedouins, and the Arabs of the cities. The latter, probably the descendants of Shem, and the former those of Ishmael, by whose name they are still frequently called. The two races seldom intermarry; both are brave, but vindictive; warm and constant in their friendship, but cruel and unforgiving in their enmities. Their hospitality is proverbial.

History.—Arabia is said to have been peopled by Kahtan or Joktan the Fifth, in a direct line from Shem, whose descendants are the genuine or "pure Arabs;" and by Adnan, a lineal of Ishmael, the son of Abraham. The posterity of Adnan are termed naturalized Arabs, as they did not settle in Arabia until many centuries after the children of Joktan had taken possession of the country. Yemen kingdom was founded by Yarab, and Hedjaz by Jorham, both sons of Joktan. Owing to an inundation caused by the bursting of a stupendous reservoir, eight tribes were compelled to seek support in other countries, some removed to Chaldea, and others to Syria. There were several petty chieftains in Yemen, but all were subject to Hamyar, who founded a dynasty and kingdom. Dhu Nowauss or Yusof, the last of the Hamyarite sovereigns (a Jew), who lived seventy years before the birth of Mahomet, cruelly persecuted the Christians, 6,000 of whom he is stated to have cast into a fiery pit. He was killed by the Abyssinians who, at the instigation of the patriot of Alexandria, undertook the defence of the Christians; Abrahah, the Abyssinian general, assumed the government of Hamyar, and established Christianity at Yemen, and, according to the Mohammedans, in A. D. 569, led an army to the gates of Mecca, but the elephant, on which he was seated, knelt down and refused to advance. Abrahah is said to have been deterred from his purpose, and the city was saved in the very year Mohammed was born. Seyff, a descendant of the royal family Hamyar, expelled the Abyssinians, but at his death the dynasty terminated, and the government of Yemen devolved on the emirs, ameers, or lieutenants of the Persian monarch. In El Hedjaz or Hejaz, the region northwest of Yemen, the Koreish tribes who were of the posterity of Ishmael held sway, and under this leader Kosa assumed the government of the Kaaba or temple, by force from the Khozaites, a colony from Yemen, descendants of Shem. One of the descend-

ants of Kosa, named Abdallah, was the father of Mohammed, who was born at Mecca at the period above mentioned. In his fortieth year, when the territories of Rome and Constantinople were overrun by Goths and Huns, and Persia also was ravished by hordes of Scythians—when the pure light of Christianity was obscured by fierce controversies, and when Jews and Christians alike sought safety and repose in Yemen—Mohammed began to disclose his pretended divine mission. The rapid progress of Mahommedanism was almost miraculous; the idols of Arabia were first destroyed, and in a comparatively brief period the followers of Mohammed invaded and subdued the greater part of the globe. At the beginning of the sixteenth century, the Turks took captive at Cairo Mohammed XII., the last of the Abassides who formally renounced the khalifate at Constantinople; the keys of the temple of Mecca were also delivered up to the Turks, who claimed the sovereignty of all Arabia. This was, however, contested by the Wahabys, a Mohammedan sect, who sought to restore pure Islamism, and who, in 1815, were driven out of the Hedjaz or holy region, by Mehemet Ali and his Egyptian soldiers. The authority of the sovereign of Egypt (which is a fief of the sultan of the Turks), is partially acknowledged along the borders of the Red sea. In the other parts of Arabia each sheik or chief considers himself independent of any internal or external authority.

PERSIA.

This ancient kingdom, known at different times under the names of Iran or Eiran, Elam or Susiana, Media, and Parthia, is situated between 26° and 40° north latitude, and 60° and 45° east longitude, and is bounded on the north by Independent Tartary, the Caspian sea, and the Russian territories, on the east by Afghanistan or Cabul, and Beloochistan, on the south and southeast by the sea of Oman and the Persian gulf, and on the west by Turkey in Asia. Its area comprises about 450,000 square miles. Its greatest length is from Mount Ararat, on the northwest, to the sea of Oman, on the southeast; the distance being about 1,300 miles.

Physical Aspect.—The centre of Persia constitutes an elevated plain, from which rise several mountain ranges; the Elborz and Paropamisan or Ghoor mountains run from east to west, on the south of the Caspian, meeting the great chain of the Hindu-Koosh and another from Mount Ararat and the Koordistan mountains extends southward to the Persian gulf. These send off different spurs—which present no definite order—and seem as if thrown together in confused heaps and masses. The middle region has an elevation of from 2,500 to 4,500 feet above the sea; the lower or level country stretches along the shores of the Persian gulf, and the basin of the Tigris on the south, and along the coast of the Caspian on the north. The interior of Persia is bleak, bare, arid; the mountains present huge masses of gray rock piled on each other, or starting in abrupt ridges from the plateau. The plains, unless on the margin of rivers, are naked terraces of stiff clay, and it is only on the banks of streams that villages and trees are seen, literally appearing like oases in a desert. The provinces bordering the Caspian sea are, however, as beautiful as water, wood, and mountain, can make them, and offer a strong contrast to the more southern and eastern districts. There are four great deserts, exclusive of smaller ones, that form part of the great Cobi, or naked desert, on the northwest of China, which stretches across Asia, communicating with slight intermissions through Beloochistan, Meckran, and Nedjid, with the sea and desert of Arabia.

In the valleys the soil is a rich dark loam, yielding successive crops for years without manure. Wherever water can be obtained for irrigation the soil is exceedingly fertile; probably not a third of the area of Persia is cultivable. Fruits and flowers abound.

Rivers and Lakes.—The rivers of Persia are few and inconsiderable. The Araxes can scarcely be considered to belong to Persia. There are more than thirty salt lakes which have no outlets; Lake Ooroomiah is seventy miles long from north to south, thirty-two from east to west, and 280 miles in circumference. Fourteen rivers fall into the lake, but its waters are intensely bitter, saline, and heavy; no fish can live in them; are shallow, and visibly decreasing. Near this lake there are some remarkable petrifactive ponds. Lake Baktegan is sixty miles long, and receives all the rivers of "Hollow Persia," or those that water the vales of Morgaub, Merdasht, and Karbal.

Climate.—Although the dimensions of modern Persia are much reduced, its limits still admit a great variety of climate. The surface of the Caspian sea being 332 feet lower than the ocean, its shores in summer experience a tropical heat, and the weather and temperature are highly capricious. The central plateau has an atmosphere excessively cold in winter, and intensely hot in summer. On the shores of the Persian gulf the thermometer sometimes reaches 125° in the shade; and the traveller on the burnt-up and barren southern coast too frequently experiences the fatal effects of the Samiel wind.

Political Divisions.—The kingdom of Persia is divided into provinces, the limits of which are continually varying. Geographers have, for this reason, retained the ancient divisions of the country, the names of which, with their capitals, are as follows:—

Provinces.	Capitals.	Population.	Provinces.	Capitals.	Population.
1. Koordistan	Senna	5,000	7. Irak-Ajemi	Ispahan†	150,000
2. Azerbijan	Tabriz or Taurus*	50,000	8. Khuzistan	Shuster	20,000
3. Ghilan	Resht	40,000	9. Fars or Faristan	Shiraz	30,000
4. Mazanderan	Sari	40,000	10. Laristan	Lar	12,000
5. Astrabad	Astrabad	15,000	11. Kerman	Kerman	30,000
6. Khorassan	Mushid	30,000	12. Seistan, inhabited by wandering tribes.		

Chief Cities.—Other principal towns, besides those named above, are Teheran,‡ Ardabil, Maragha, Khoy, Marant, Ooroomiah, Koom, Kasbin, Tehran, Moorgaub, Kazeroon, Komaishah, Yezdékhast, Enzeli, Amol, Balfurosh, Farahabad, Damghaun, Semnoon, Neshapoore, Toon, Tubbus, and Yezd.

Productive Resources.—The agricultural products of Persia are, wheat, barley, millet, oats, rice, hemp, tobacco, fruits, &c. Gums, medicines, and dye-stuffs, are among the rich products of Persia. The silk-worm is exten-

* Tabriz, the chief town of Azerbijan, is a great centre of commerce, with a large but very fluctuating population. It is about 5,000 feet above the level of the sea, and is bordered on three sides with mountains, while on the fourth side the plain extends, without interruption, to Lake Ooroomiah, which is distant about thirty miles. The city is about four miles in circuit, and is surrounded by a brick wall; and the citadel, a high and massive structure of brickwork, is visible from a distance, rising above the broad screen of gardens, which mask the approach to the city, and which, being cultivated with great care, yield every kind of fruit in the utmost perfection and abundance.

† Ispahan, the ancient capital of Persia, formerly a large and splendid city, with 1,000,000 inhabitants, is now in ruins. It stands on a plain 4,140 feet above the sea, upon the banks of the Zeinde-rûd, which is crossed by three fine bridges, and is surrounded by a mud wall twenty-four miles in circuit. Nothing can exceed the beauty of the surrounding valley, and the first view of the city is still imposing. A nearer view, however, dispels the illusion, though much still remains of wealth, if not of splendor. Ispahan has yet considerable trade, and a population of 150,000.

‡ Teheran, or Tchraun, is the modern capital of Persia. It stands in a gravelly plain, 4,000 feet above the level of the sea. It is about five miles in circuit, and is enclosed by a strong earthen wall, flanked with numerous towers, surrounded by a glacis, outside which is a large dry ditch. The appearance of the city from a distance is picturesque; but it has few public edifices worth notice; and notwithstanding it has many good shops and bazars, it is said by Morier to have a mud-like look within, its houses, like those of other Persian towns, being constructed of sun-dried bricks, while many of its streets are wretchedly paved. The ark or citadel comprises, besides the royal residence and harem, quarters for the guards, the record-chamber, treasury hall for receiving embassadors, and other public offices, ten baths, two or three gardens, reservoirs, &c. The grand saloon in the palace is said to be very magnificent; the throne is a platform of pure white marble, raised a few steps from the ground, and carpeted with shawls and cloth of gold, and the whole interior of the department is profusely decorated with carving, gilding, arabesque painting, and looking-glass, the last material being interwoven with all the other ornaments, from the vaulted roof to the floor. The population of Teheran, during the residence of the court, is 70,000 or upward. During the heats of summer its population is reduced to about 10,000.

sively reared, and the annual produce of silk amounts to 4,000,000 of pounds. The horses of Persia are among the finest in the world. The mineral riches of Persia are almost wholly unexplored. Iron, copper, and lead, are, however, known to abound in all the great mountain ranges. The turquoise abounds in Persia, of a beauty unknown in any other part of the world. Rock-salt is very abundant all over the country.

Manufactures.—The Persians have carried many of the mechanic arts to high perfection. Their principal manufactures, and those in which they particularly excel, are sabres, copper and brass-work, perfumery, leather, pottery, silks, carpets, felts, printed cloths and shawls.

Commerce.—The commerce of Persia is mostly by land. The only seaports are, Bushire, Bunderabbas or Gombroon, Congoon, and some still smaller places on the Persian gulf; and Euzellee, Balfrush, and Asterabad, on the Caspian. The principal trade is with India, China, Turkey, Russia, Bokhara, and Afghanistan. Their exports consists of pearls, silks, horses, camels, skins, copper, leather, gums, drugs, dye-stuffs, &c.; and the imports are indigo, cochineal, coffee, sugar, tea, jewelry, and European merchandise generally.

Education.—In former reigns, particularly in the time of the Suffaveans, when literature was more encouraged than now, considerable attention was paid to education. Medressas or colleges were built and endowed, in which mollahs and teachers of suitable abilities were placed to instruct the students. But these institutions were rather for students of more advanced age; for younger pupils of the lower classes there are schools kept by private persons, where reading and writing are taught, and some knowledge of the practice of religion is imparted, with perhaps, to some who are destined to become "men of the pen," a little superficial instruction in logic and grammar.

Population.—There having been no census ever taken in Persia, the amount of its population is merely conjectural. It is variously estimated to be from 8,000,000 to 11,000,000. The national appearance and character vary much; some of the Persians are of noble stature and appearance; brave, truthful, and honest: others are the reverse; and despotism in Persia, as elsewhere, deteriorates man.

Government.—The government of Persia, like that of most eastern countries, is, in principle at least, an absolute despotism. The shah is regarded as the vicegerent of the prophet, and, as such, is entitled to implicit obedience. His word is law; he is absolute master of the lives and properties of his subjects; and the first man in the empire may, at his command, be instantly stripped of all his dignities, bastinadoed, or strangled; the only control on his actions being the risk of provoking rebellion or assassination. The two principal ministers are, the grand vizier or vizier azem, and the lord high-treasurer or ameen-a-doulah. The former superintends everything connected with foreign relations, and, in the absence of the sovereign, commands the armies; while the latter, who is subordinate to the other, superintends the internal arrangements, the collection of the revenue, &c. The whole executive government is in the hands of these two functionaries, whose authority, so long as they continue in power, is as absolute as that of their master; but their greatness, being built on the favor of a tyrant, is of the most unstable kind, and they are very often precipitated from their slippery elevation. The Persians are Mohammedans, of the sect called Schiites or Sheahs, or of those who look upon Ali, the son-in-law of the prophet, as his legitimate successor.

History.—The ancient history of Persia is intimately connected with tha of Greece and Rome. In more modern times it has been the theatre of endless civil wars, revolutions, and changes devoid of all interest to foreigners. Toward the end of the sixteenth century, however, order was restored, and Persia rose to distinction under the government of Shah Abbas, surnamed the Great,

FUTTEH ALI SHAH.

who defeated the Turks in several battles, taking from them the city of Tabriz and the province of Georgia, and Ormuz from the Portuguese. Abbas was succeeded by a series of imbecile tyrants; and in 1727 the country was overrun by the Afghans. At length the famous Thamas Kouli Khan, a brigand chief, was raised to the throne by the title of Nadir Shah, and distinguished himself alike by his victories and his ferocity. Nadir being assassinated, in 1743, his death was followed by a long-continued civil war. After a vast deal of blood had been spilt, the eunuch Mehemet Khan succeeded, by his superior ability and good fortune, in establishing his authority over most of the provinces now comprised in Persia; and transmitted his authority to his nephew, Futteh Ali Shah. This prince waged an unsuccessful war with Russia, who stripped him of a large territory in Armenia, and obliged him to pay $10,000,000 as an indemnity for the expenses she had been put to in the contest. Futteh Ali kept an enormous harem; and it was his practice to disperse his sons over the empire, as governors of provinces, towns, &c., of which, speaking generally, they were the scourges. On the death of Futteh, in 1835, his grandson, Mohammed Mirza, son of the prince royal, Abbas Mirza, succeeded to the throne in terms of his grandfather's will. A few of his uncles, who were reckoned most dangerous, were deprived of sight; but on the whole the succession was unusually tranquil and bloodless. This sovereign was favorable to the interests of Russia, or rather, perhaps, deemed it most prudent to keep on good terms with those who had the greatest means of injuring him. His unsuccessful expedition against Herat is said to have been undertaken at the instigation of Russia. The present shah is Nasser-ad-Din.

AFGHANISTAN.

Afghanistan, originally a part of Persia, lies between 60° and 70° east longitude, and 30° and 36° north latitude, and is bounded on the north by the Hindoo-Koosh mountains, on the west by Persia, on the south by Beloochistan, and on the east by Hindostan. It is about 630 miles long by 450 broad, and contains about 250,000 square miles. Population about 8,000,000.

Physical Aspect.—This region presents an aggregation of mountainous groups and ranges, diverging from certain principal points, and thus becomes divided into numerous valleys of greater or lesser size, which are watered by streams of corresponding magnitudes, and which sometimes stretch out into plains of considerable extent. The most conspicuous feature is the grand mountain chain, continued from the snowy range of Hindostan, which forms the whole of its northern boundary. Several subordinate chains traverse the coun-

try. Of these the most important is Solimoun, which runs parallel to the Indus, and nearly at right angles with the Hindu-Koosh.

Rivers, &c.—The rivers of Afghanistan (excepting the Indus, which bathes its eastern border) are not of the first magnitude. The most important are the Kama, the Cabul, and the Helmund. The mountain-tracts in the south give rise to numerous rivers, or rather torrents, nearly dry in summer, but rapid and desolating in winter. The only lake worth noticing is the salt lake of Zurroh, the recipient of the Helmund.

Climate.—The climate varies in an extreme degree, according to locality. In the eastern part of the Cabul valley and in those to the south, bordering on Cutch Gundava, the heat is sufficient to mature all the products of India, such as the sugar-cane, indigo, and some of the tropical fruits; while the northern valleys abound in the productions of cold regions, and the mountains are covered with forests of pines.

Chief Towns.—Cabul is the principal city of Afghanistan, and is one of the most delightful in the world.* Other towns are Candahar, Ghuznee, Peshawer, Jellalabad, Kohat, Mittun, Baumeean, Herat, &c.

Productive Resources.—Agriculture is in the same rude state as in Persia and most Asiatic countries. Wheat, barley, rice, and maize, form the produce of the more temperate regions; while in the warmer, the smaller grains common to India, with the sugar-cane, cotton, tobacco, indigo, madder, &c., reward the farmer's toil. Grapes, pomegranates, figs, mangoes, oranges, lemons, guavos, plantains, and other fruits of India, are found in abundance. Of its mineral products are gold, copper, iron, antimony, sulphur, coal, &c. Manufactures are confined to homemade stuffs of cotton and wool, and a little silk, which serve for the dress of the inhabitants. Little or nothing is manufactured for export.

Commerce.—The disturbed state of the country for a succession of years has been unfavorable to trade; and the large and valuable caravans which formerly carried the rich productions of India and Cashmere to Cabul and Herat, for the consumption of the courts at these cities, or for transit, by Yez, into Persia, now no longer venture to traverse lands where robbery and extortion combine to ruin the merchant. There is, however, a considerable trade carried on with India, and a thousand camel-loads of India and English chintzes, calicoes, and muslins, brocade shawls, Punjab turbans, spices, &c., are yearly consumed at Cabul.

Education.—Education is conducted much as in the conterminous countries. A village moollah, or schoolmaster, teaches the children of the poor to say their prayers and to read the Koran; the rich keep lallas or private tutors in their houses; the village schoolmasters are paid in allotments of land and some small fees. Those intended for the learned professions go to towns, and live in colleges instituted for the purpose of instruction.

Government.—The Afghans are divided into small tribes, and their chiefs or khans are elected by the people of each. The internal government is conducted by these khans, and assemblies of the heads of divisions. The khan, though supreme, is looked upon as a father, who has the welfare of his children in view, and is consequently secure only in the affections of his people.

History.—Afghanistan having, from the earliest period of authentic record, followed the fortunes of its more powerful neighbors, or formed but the centre of a greater whole, can not correctly lay claim to any history of its own, until after the death of Nadir Shah. On the murder of Nadir, in Khorassan, in 1747,

* Cabul is situated in a plain 1,000 feet above the level of the adjacent country. It is surrounded by a lofty wall of towers and curtains and a broad ditch, and with one exception of a suburb, stands all on the right bank of the river. The houses are built of sun-dried brick and wood, but few of them are more than two stories high. The great bazar is an elegant arcade, nearly 600 feet long and 30 broad. There are few such bazars in the East, and wonder is excited by the silks, cloths, and goods, arranged along the sides and at the quantity of dried fruits piled up in endless profusion. Each trade has its separate bazar. The population amounts to about 60,000, who all converse in the Persian as their mother-tongue.

Ahmed Abdallee succeeded in gaining an ascendency over the Afghan tribes, and extended his sway by conquest over the country between the Oxus and the sea, and from Kerman to the Indus. On his death, in 1773, he was succeeded by his son Timour Shah, a weak and indolent prince, who died in 1793. Since then till the present day the affairs of Afghanistan present but a series of civil broils, crimes, and murders. In 1838, Dost Mohammed, the present sovereign, was conquered by the British; but in November, 1842, they retired from the country, having lost several thousand men in their wars with this highly-spirited people, and the deposed monarch was allowed to return and resume his government.

BELOOCHISTAN.

Beloochistan, the remaining portion of ancient Persia, lies between Afghanistan and the Indian ocean, and between 58° and 69° west longitude, and 25° and 30° north latitude. It has Hindostan on the east, and Persia on the west. Its superficial area is about 180,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—By far the greater part of Beloochistan is mountainous, and especially its eastern and western divisions, which consist of two table-lands; those of Kelat and Kohistan (the land of mountains), whose ranges run mostly north and south, and communicate with each other by several other extensive ranges running east and west across the central province of Mukran. A large portion of the country is entirely desert, and the seacoast is covered by flat, barren sands, which are destitute of water, and produce no other vegetation than date-trees.

Rivers.—Cutch Gundava, intersected by some of the western tributaries of the Indus, is the only well-watered province. The remainder of Beloochistan suffers from want of water, excepting, perhaps, a few rice-grounds in the province of Lus. There is not a rivulet in the north, and only a few along the coast, which, although sometimes swollen in a few minutes to torrents, by profuse rains, are, for the most part of the year, nearly dry.

Climate.—The climate is healthy, except in Mukran. In the mountainous provinces there are four seasons: the spring from the middle of February to the middle of April; the summer thenceforward to the beginning of August, the heats of which are intense only toward the latter end; the autumn lasts till the October snows; and the winter, which is very severe, for the rest of the year.

Chief Towns.—The chief city and capital of Beloochistan is Kelat. It has a population of about 25,000. Other towns are Gundava, Punjgoor, Bayla, Lydree, Khoola, Choubar, Bunpoor, &c.

Productive Resources.—Not a hundredth part of the country is cultivated. All the kinds of grain, however, known in India, are grown, viz., rice, wheat, barley, maize, sesamum, &c. Cotton, indigo, and madder, are grown. Gold, silver, and some other metals, with sulphur, naphtha, and rock-salt, are found in different places. Manufactures are few and rude, most of the articles beyond what are absolutely necessary to the support of life, being imported from neighboring countries, in exchange for the few natural products.

Commerce.—The principal exports are, horses and other cattle, skins, dates, grain, some rice, cotton, silk, oil, indigo, salt, borax, nitre, &c.; from Lus, grain, felt, and coarse carpets, are sent into Mukran and Arabia. From the latter country almonds and Caffre slaves are imported, the Caffres being deemed very valuable; from India, iron, tin, lead, steel, copper, indigo, betel-nut, cochi-

neal, sugar, spices, silks, gold-cloths, chintzes, and coarse woollens, fruit, &c.; from Cabul and Khorassan, steel and copper; from Seistan, white cloths, loongees, turbans, &c.: from Sinde, Shikarpoor, &c., porcelain, tobacco, coffee, opium, &c.

Education.—Almost all the inhabitants of Beloochistan are nearly barbarous and uncivilized: neither the Beloocheekee nor Brahooékee are written tongues, and he is greatly honored, and called "moollee," who can read the Koran. They are quite ignorant of all the countries in their neighborhood, and fancy the British East India Company (of which they have heard from the Hindus) to be "an old woman with plenty of money."

Government.—The government is nominally under the khan of Khelat, but chiefly in the hands of the sirdars of each individual tribe. The khan, however, can oblige each sirdar or chief to furnish him with a contingent of troops in case of need.

History.—This country was quite unknown to Europeans until the time of Alexander the Great: the hills were then inhabited by a race of savages, the shore by people who subsisted, as at present, on fish, then called by the Greeks Ichthyophagi. For nearly ten centuries afterward there are no records of Beloochistan. A calif of Bagdad, in the year 92 of the Hegira (A. D. 675), led an army through it to Sinde; it was afterward taken possession of by Musaood, son of the emperor Mahmood, and remained governed by his dynasty till 1739, when Nadir Shah, having conquered it, bestowed it, with the title of beglerbeg, on an ancestor of the present khan of Khelat. Until 1758 it was tributary to the khan of Cabul, but is now quite independent.

INDIA.

One Rupee, 40 cents.

India comprises the two peninsulas of Southern Asia east of Arabia, divided by the Ganges into Hindostan or India within the Ganges, and Farther India or India beyond the Ganges, called also Chin-India, and sometimes Indo-China. Both the peninsulas of India are remarkable for the number and size of their rivers, whose waters and inundations, united with the heat of the climate, make them the most fertile countries on earth. The term East Indies is also used for the whole of south-eastern Asia, including China and Malaysia.

One Rupee, 40 cents.

HINDOSTAN.

Hindostan is bounded on the north by the Himalaya mountains, on the northeast by the Brahmapootra river, on the east, south, and west, by the Indian ocean, and on the northwest by the river Indus, which separates it from Afghanistan and Beloochistan. Its form is triangular, and comprises an area of about 1,300,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—No language would do justice to the varied and magnificent scenery of this great peninsula, partaking as it does of the richly luxuriant and wildly romantic; here interminable plains, intersected with deep and mighty rivers; there inaccessible mountains, whose immeasurable summits

are wreathed in perpetual snow; on the one hand an almost boundless landscape, verdant with the softness of perpetual spring; on the other rugged alpine steppes, bordered by vast and towering forests; mountainous ranges, on this shore, presenting a stupendous barrier to the Indian ocean, while on that, a low and sandy alluvium seems to invite the further encroachments of the deep and stormy bay of Bengal. The leading geographical features of Hindostan are the Himalaya mountains, along the northern and eastern frontier; the range called the Ghauts rise at the southern point of the peninsula, running north along the coast until they recede at the parallels of 20 to 22, when they branch off in ridges of different elevations across the continent of India, until they are lost in the table-land of Malwa and Allahabad; while on the eastward the mighty Ganges, and on the westward the scarcely less mighty Indus, roll their impetuous and lengthened streams, fed by the snows of the Himalaya, to the sultry coasts of Bengal and Cutch, receiving in their progress an infinity of tributaries, which ramify in every possible direction over the whole peninsula. The seacoast of the province of Bengal is, for many miles, scarcely elevated above the level of the sea; and where the "sacred" Ganges and mighty Brahmapootra, with their hundred mouths, rush to join the parent fountain, a vast extent of country (30,000 square miles) called the Sunderbunds, extending for 180 miles along the bay of Bengal, is an interminable labyrinth of salt-water lakes, rivers, and creeks, interspersed with mangrove islets of shifting mounds of sand and mud. A summary view of the physical aspect of British Hindostan, by districts, is given in the following table:—

BENGAL PROVINCES.

Calcutta—Level rivers, salt lakes, and jungles.
Hooghly—Low, well-watered, rich alluvial soil.
Nuddea—Low, light soil, Jellinghy and Cossimbazar rivers.
Jessore—Low, salt marshy isles, mouths of Ganges.
Backergunge—Part of the Sunderbunds, alluvial soil, mouths of Ganges.
Dacca—Intersected by the Ganges and Brahmapootra.
Tipperah—Wild hilly regions, fertile tracts on Megna.
Chittagong—120 miles along the bay of Bengal, hilly.
Sylhet—Northeast hilly, south flat, west, hills and vales.
Mymensing—Brahmapootra valley, low, many streams
Rajeshaye—Intersected by the Ganges, flat, with lakes.
Moorshedabad—Intersected by the Jellinghy, flat and fertile.
Jungle Meeals—Wild forest, hilly country, picturesque, dry.
Birbhoom—Hilly, jungly, and dry land, with hot springs.
Didagepoor—Hilly, to south, waving valleys, numberless lakes.
Rungpoor—Hilly, to east forests, Garrow mountains, 3,000 feet.
Burdwan—Rising land, rich soil, jungly, coal and iron.

BAHAR.

Ramghur—Hilly, two thirds waste, very rocky.
Boglipoor—Fertile hills and swelling valleys, with hot springs.
Bahar—Hilly and rugged to south, flat near Ganges.
Patna—Ganges, river five miles wide, picturesque.
Shahabad—Picturesque along the Ganges, hilly to south
Purneah—Marshy to south, sinking toward the Ganges.
Tirhoot—Elevated, not hilly, extensive wastes to the north.
Sarun—Elevated, rich flats along Gunduck, majestic forests.
Sumbhulpoor—Hill and dale, intersected by Mahanundy.

ORISSA.

Midnapore—Cultivated plains, good roads, and dense jungles.
Hidjellee—Embanked, and intersected by rivers.
Cuttack—Delta of rivers, elevated, then hilly.

ULTRA-GANGETIC.

Arracan—Isthmuses, islands, swamps, seacoasts, and jungles.
Assam, &c—Valley of Brahmapootra, 60 miles by 350.
Tavoy—Dense forests, seacoast, low islands.
Ye—Rivers, rice plains and forests, rocky coast.
Tenasserim—Mergui Archipelago, interior hilly, little known.
Mergui Isles—High, bold in triple lines, with harbors.

NORTHWEST PROVINCES.

Benares—Holy city, on the Ganges, highly cultivated.
Ghazeepore—Gently undulating, Ganges on south, on the east Goggra.
Azimghur—Elevated, sandy but fertile, Goggra river.
Goruckpoor—Base hills low, forests, Nepaul mountains to north.
Juanpoor—Undulating, north and south Goggra, east Ganges.
Allahabad—Ganges and Jumna Delta, 800 feet above Calcutta.
Banda—Elevated table-land, high hills in ranges.
Kalpee—Along Jumna flat, toward Panna mountains.
Futtehpore—Ganges and Jumnah valley, rising from either bank.
Cawnpore—Segment of plain from bay of Bengal to mountains.
Etawah—Flat, intersected by ravines, Chumbul river.
Furruckabad—The Doab in general flat, and divested of trees.
Shajehanpoor—Flat, and intersected by north mountain streams.
Saidabad—Highly cultivated, many water-courses.
Allyghur—Low dark jungle, loneliest part of the Doab.
Saiswan—Highly cultivated, many water-courses.
Bareilly—Generally level, watered by Ganges, &c.
Peelibheat—Pleasantly situated on the Gurrah, very fertile.
Moradabad—Inundated along the Ganges, Gerwhal mountains north.
Agra—Table-land, Chumbul and Jumna rivers.
Delhi—Table-land, 800 feet above the ocean, saline soil.
Sarahunpoor—Flat to base of hills at north and east, fertile.
Kumaon, &c.—High mountainous ridges, elevation 7,000 feet.
Nurbudda District—Ravines, valleys, forests, Nerbudda Delta.

MADRAS PRESIDENCY.

Gangam—Low seacoast, large fertile plains, hilly to west.
Vizigapatam—Mountainous, lofty ridge, parallel to the sea.

Rajahmundry—Bounded by the Godavery, delta, 500 square miles.
Masulipatam—Mountainous, west low sea coast, good harbor.
Guntoor—Mountainous by Kistnah river to west, and Gondegama to south.
Bellary—Stupendous wall of mountains, rising abrupt.
Cuddapah—Stupendous wall of mount'n rising abrupt.
Nellore—Picturesque even to the sea, small hills, &c.
Arcot—Varied, mountainous to north, verdant.
Chingleput—Includes Madras, low, with masses of granite.
Salem—To north 5,000 feet above the sea, table-land.
Coimbatore—Table-land, to north 6,000 feet, Neilgherries.
Trinchinopoly—More elevated, waving valleys, eminences.
Tanjore—Delta of Cauvery one sheet of rice cultivation
Madura—Flat to south and east, hilly, north and west, forests.
Tinnivelly—Ridge of mountains west open to the sea.
Malabar—200 miles seacoast, separated by valleys from west Ghauts.
Canara—180 miles seacoast, rocky and mountainous, west Ghauts.

BOMBAY PRESIDENCY.

Conkan, North and South—225 miles along sea, Ghauts 2,000 to 4,000 feet.
Dharwar—Elevated to the west, isolated, flat eminences.
Poonah—Intersected by many rivers, fertile valleys.
Kandeish—Low hills to south, and numerous streams.
Surat—Hilly to east and south, flat to north, and coast fertile.
Baroach—Flat, cultivated, and peopled along the gulf.
Kairah—Intersected by Karee river, level, good soil.
Ahmedabad—Intersected by Karee riv., level, good soil.
Kattywar—Hills, jungles, and rocks, rude seacoast.

MOUNTAINS.—There are several ranges; the greatest is that of the Himalaya or the abode of snow, and is the most remarkable feature in the eastern hemisphere. The principal chain runs from northwest to southeast, with an abrupt steep face of 6,000 feet against the plains, there is then a slope from the crest of the ridge toward the north. The loftiest peaks are from 20,000 to 28,000 feet in height, and are covered perpetually with snow. Another range of mountains, but of much less elevation, termed the Ghauts, extend along the Malabar coast, from the gulf of Cambay to Cape Comorin, and throws off different spurs to the westward, on which the great table-land of the Deccan rests. Another range of inconsiderable height passes from east to west, through Malwa. The Neilgherries are a beautiful range in the Madras Presidency.

RIVERS.—The Indus is a magnificent river, 1,700 miles in length, and receives, in its course southward, the waters of the Sutlej, the Chenab, the Ghara, and many others. It is navigable for steamships to Moultan, and many others of its tributaries form navigable streams of great volume. The Ganges (1,500 miles long) flows in an easterly direction from its sources in the Himalayas. It is the most pre-eminent among the rivers of India, not only from its length of course, the great and fertile valley which it waters, the number of important cities and towns on its banks, but also from the holy and sacred character it has maintained from the most remote ages; the Hindus believing that its waters possess a virtue which will preserve them from every moral transgression. Some of the tributaries would in many countries rank as important rivers. Its principal, the Jumna, the Chumbul, Sinde, Betwa, Cane, Baugy, &c. The Brahmapootra (1,500 miles long) is also a noble river, eastward of the Ganges, emptying itself, with that river, into the bay of Bengal. Other rivers worthy of note are, the Nerbuddah and Tuptee, emptying into the Arabian gulf, and the Mahanuddy, Godavery, and Kistnah, emptying into the Indian ocean, on the east side of the peninsula.

CLIMATE.—The climate of Hindostan is very various, according to latitude and elevation above the sea. At Simla, in the Himalaya mountains, it is delightfully cool during the periods when the plains of southern India are scorched with a hot wind and a tropical sun. The year is divided into the wet and dry seasons. The most remarkable peculiarity, however, of the Indian climate is, the periodical changes of the wind, which blows alternately for nearly half the year in opposite directions. These are termed monsoons, but their effects are mostly felt in the southern peninsula. The general heat of India, and the insalubrious character of the rainy season, produce not only discomfort, but are highly injurious to the human constitution; and foreigners are ever liable to fevers, dysenteries, diseases of the liver, and other complaints peculiar to the East. The marshes of the Ganges seem to be the original seat of the Asiatic cholera, and hence it spreads its pestilential breath to the extreme limits of the earth.

Political Divisions.—The states of Hindostan are divided politically into five classes, viz.: 1. Independent states. 2. British territories, or territories under the immediate government of the East India Company. 3. Subject states, left to the rule of the native princes, but under the control of the Company. 4. States under British protection, but without interference of their internal administration. 5. Colonies of other European nations. The names of these, with their respective areas and populations, are as follows:—

I.—Independent States.

	Area in square miles.	Population.
Bootan, or the country of Deb-Rajah	20,000	1,000,000
The kingdom of Nepaul	36,000	2,000,000
Total	56,000	3,000,000

II.—British Territories.

Fort William, Bengal, Presidency of—		
1. Government of Bengal, Bahar, Orissa, including Arracan, Assam, &c.	181,684	42,000,000
2. Government of Agra, or Northwest Provinces	170,210	18,000,000
Fort St. George, Madras, Presidency of	121,982	16,000,000
Bombay, Presidency of	62,542	7,000,000
Total	536,418	83,000,000

III.—Subject States.

The Mahrattas	9,950	1,195,000
Mysore, Rajah of	28,000	2,800,000
Sikim, Rajah of	4,500	450,000
Rewah, in Bundelcund, Rajah of	10,000	1,000,000
Dhattea, Jhansi, and Tehri, in Bundelcund, Chiefs of	16,000	1,500,000
Bhurtpore, Rajah of	2,000	190,000
Dholpore, Barec, &c., Rajahs of	1,600	160,000
Bhopal, in Malwah, Nawub or Nabob of	6,700	670,000
Dhar and Dewas, in Malwah, Rajahs of	1,400	140,000
Rajpootana and Malwah, Princes of	109,000	6,800,000
Patiala, Keytal, Naba, Jeend, &c., between the Jumnah and the Sutlej, Rajahs of	16,600	500,000
Bhawul-Kahn, Chief of the Daoudpûtras	30,000	350,000
Total	235,750	15,755,000

IV—Protected States.

Hydrabad, Nizam or king of	89,000	10,000,000
Berar, Rajah of	57,000	3,000,000
Travancore, Rajah of	4,500	450,000
Cochin, Rajah of	2,000	200,000
Oude, Padishah or King of	24,000	6,000,000
Holkah's Territory in Malwah	4,200	420,000
Baroda	25,000	2,500,000
Kutch, Rao of	7,300	350,000
Sinde, Ameers of	60,000	200,000
The Maharajah Scindia, in Central India	32,944	3,250,000
The Punjab, or kingdom of Lahore	160,000	4,000,000
Total	465,944	30,370,000

V.—Colonies of other European Nations.

Portuguese Territory	1,200	500,000
French Territory	520	210,000
Danish Territory	93	35,000
Total	1,823	745,000
Grand Total	1,295,935	52,870,000

Chief Towns.—The chief towns in the presidency of Bengal are, Calcutta* Patna, Rakhain or Arracan, Cuttach, Ghergong, Allahabad, Benares, Agra, Delhi, Amere, Ghazeepore, Bareilly, Almora, Saugur, &c. In the presidency of Madras the chief towns are Madras (the capital), Arcot, and Calicut. In

* Calcutta is the capital of all British India. It is situated 100 miles from the sea, on the Hoogly river, an arm of the Ganges, in latitude 22° 23′ north, longitude 88° 28′ east. The locality formerly was very unhealthy, being in the midst of forests and swamps; and, though these have been in a great measure cleared away, it still suffers by the damp breezes from the Sunderbunds. The English town, or suburb, called Chouringee, contains the finest houses. Strangers ascending the river are particularly struck by the number of elegant villas, with which all the environs are studded. The Black Town, comprising much the greater part of Calcutta, consists, as in other parts of India, of miserable cottages of mud and bamboo. The government-house is a very splendid and costy structure. A college was founded by the marquis Wellesley, which boasted many illustrious members, but has of late been much reduced. Calcutta enjoys a very extensive internal navigation, by means of the Ganges and its numerous arms and tributaries; and it monopolizes the whole of the external trade of Bengal. It is now, in fact, Canton perhaps excepted, the greatest emporium of the East. The gross amount of its imports and exports amounting to from $50,000,000 to $60,000,000 a year. The population amounts to about 250,000. Calcutta has several places of Christian worship, and a number of academies and schools. It contains, with the suburbs, nearly 1,000,000 inhabitants.

Bombay the city of Bombay† (the capital), Surat, Poonah, and others. In the protected states, Hydrabad (capital of the state of the same name), Nagpore (capital of Berar), Trivandrum, Mysore, Seringapatam, Sikim, Lucknow, Bhurlpore, Dholpore, Bhopal, Islanuggur, Basodah, Bhooj, Oudepore, Jeypore, Joudpore, Bahawulpore, Gwalior, Lahore, Lalita-Patan, Pondichery (capital of the French possessions), Serampore, and many others of less note.

Productive Resources.—India has ever been celebrated for the luxuriance of its vegetation, and the profuseness of its magnificent and valuable products. Among the trees are, the noble palm-tree, the fragrant sandal-wood, the bamboo, used for masts, fences, mats, baskets, pipes, &c.; and the banyan-tree, which strikes its branches into the ground, forming beautiful arbors, sometimes half a mile in circuit, and capable of shading an army of several thousand men. Among its most important productions are rice (which is the great article of food, and is raised on every spot where irrigation is practicable), wheat, barley, pepper, ginseng, silk, cotton, sugar, tobacco, indigo, caoutchouc, opium, saltpetre, coffee, tea, &c. Iron, copper, lead, antimony, plumbago, zinc, sulphur, silver, and gold, together with inexhaustible supplies of coal, abound in various parts of the country.

Manufactures.—The manufactures of India are many and various. Among them may be named shawls, table-linens, silks, taffetas, brocades, embroideries, steel and iron goods, paper, jewelry, and cotton and woollen goods, &c.

Commerce.—The principal exports of India are indigo, opium, cotton, sugar, muslins, calicoes, raw silk, pepper, rice, and diamonds. The imports consist principally of British manufactured goods. The maritime trade centres in Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras. A considerable trade is carried on with the Persian gulf, Arabia, China, and the Asiatic islands. The internal trade of Hindostan is also great. Inland customs are now abolished, and traders may carry their goods from one extremity of the country to the other, without being pillaged at every step, as formerly, by customhouse officers. On the Ganges, and all the other large rivers, there is an extensive inland navigation. The roads generally are very indifferent, affording only a limited conveyance in rude cars, drawn by oxen. In the northwest provinces camels and horses are resorted to; and in the mountainous districts porters are the chief bearers of merchandise.

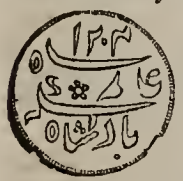
Education.—Education is being rapidly extended in many parts of Hindostan, but especially in the vicinity of Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Delhi, Agra, Benares, Patna, and other large cities. In the medical schools, Hindu, Mussulman, and Anglo-Indian youths are taught anatomy, surgery, practice of physic, &c., and when properly qualified, they receive appointments as native doctors in different regiments, and at the principal stations of the company.

Religion.—The religion of the Hindus, derived from their sacred books, inculcates a belief in the existence of one supreme God, called Brama, who holds himself aloof from the world, in a state of perfect indolence and bliss, having committed the government of the universe to three divinities; besides these, they have an innumerable number of inferior deities. They believe that those who withdraw from the world, and devote themselves to abstinence and self-torture,

* The city of Bombay is situated on a small island, connected by an artificial causeway with the larger one of Salsette. The city is built on the southeast side of the island, and is surrounded by walls about two miles in circuit, which are mounted on the east side with formidable batteries. The houses are excessively crowded and very lofty, and generally built in the Portuguese style. Three sides of the wall are washed by the sea, on a fourth is the esplanade, and beyond it is the Black Town, spreading out amid a wood of cocoa-nut trees; and still further off, the cocoa-nut wood is studded with villas. In the dry season the merchants generally live in bungaloes or tents, erected on the esplanade, where they enjoy the benefit of the sea-breeze. Including the English and Portuguese, there are no less than nineteen languages spoken on the island. The Persians are the most wealthy part of the population. Bombay is the only principal settlement in India where the rise of the tides is sufficient to permit the construction of docks on a large scale. The highest tides rise seventeen feet. The docks and dockyards are capacious, and are entirely occupied by Parsees or Persians, who are complete masters of the art of ship-building, and construct vessels of the largest class. Bombay is the great entrepôt of the trade of the Red sea, the east coast of Africa, Arabia, the Persian gulf, the Indian Archipelago, and China. European and American vessels find cargoes here from the greater part of India, consisting of drugs, spices, arrack, shawls, cornelians, agates, cotton, &c. The population is about 350,000.

will arrive at supreme happiness, by being united to the spirit of the great Deity, as a drop of water is absorbed by the ocean. The souls of the less holy they imagine will pass into the bodies of other men and brutes. The duties, ceremonies, and observances of religion, are interwoven with all the common offices of life. The people worship images, and, under the blind influence of superstition, drown their children in the rivers, inflict upon themselves the most painful tortures and penances, and seek death by drowning, by fire, by being crushed beneath wheels, and by throwing themselves on large iron hooks. Religion and law combine to divide the people into four castes: 1st, Bramins or priests; 2d, rajah-pootras or soldiers; 3d, vaisgas or merchants and farmers; and 4th, sudras or laborers. These do not eat or drink together, nor intermarry; and if any one violates the rules of his caste, he becomes an outcast or pariah; these form about one fifth of the population. The great efforts which are now making by the various missionary societies for introducing Christianity into India, have in many instances obtained a rich reward. Several hundreds of Hindus have renounced their gods, the Ganges, and their priests, and have shaken from their limbs the iron chain of caste.

Government.—In the native states the government is an absolute despotism, in its most oppressive form; both the people and the land are alike the property of the rajah, the nabob, the sultan, or the padishah. The superintendence direction, and control of the whole civil and military government of the British territories and revenues in India, is vested in a governor-general and councillors, styled "the governor-general of India in council." The council is composed of four ordinary members, three of whom are chosen from the East India Company's servants; and, when there is a separate commander-in-chief, that officer is an extraordinary member, taking rank and precedence next after the governor-general. The capitals of the three presidencies are subject to the laws of England, and justice is administered within their limits by supreme courts, the judges of which are appointed by the crown. Each presidency has its separate army, commander-in-chief, staff, &c.; but the commander-in-chief of the supreme government possesses a general authority over all the presidencies. The total armed force in British is about 200,000 men, which may be said to consist of three branches, viz.: queen's cavalry and infantry; the East India Company's European engineers, artillery, and infantry; and the Company's native artillery, cavalry, and infantry.



¼ Rupee, 10 cents.

History.—The earliest authentic European account of Hindostan is given of Alexander's army, which the Macedonian chief pushed across the different rivers of the Punjab, without however reaching the Ganges. At this period a considerable portion of India was subject to the Persian monarchy; subsequently the Hindus became tributaries to the all-pervading sway of the disciples of Mohammed, and finally subjects of the victorious Moslems, who, headed by Timour or Tamerlane, extended their conquests from the Irtish and Volga to the Persian gulf, and from the Ganges to the Eastern Archipelago. A century after the death of Tamerlane, the Portuguese appeared on the coast of India, having effected a passage to the eastward by doubling the cape of Good Hope, and thus completely changed the European route of commerce with the eastern hemisphere, which had previously been carried on by the Red sea and Egypt, or by the Black sea and Constantinople. The example of the Portuguese was followed by the Dutch, French, and English. Within less than a century after the death of Tamerlane, the Portuguese, under Vasco de Gama, arrived in India, and found the west coast of Coromandel divided between two great sovereigns, the king of Cambay and the Zamorin; by aiding the petty princes who were dependent on the latter, the Portuguese soon acquired a paramount influence on the Malabar shore, and at the commencement of the six-

teenth century secured themselves in Goa, which they fortified and made the capital of their settlements and commerce in the eastern seas, extending over the east coast of Africa, the coasts of Arabia and Persia, the two peninsulas of India, Ceylon, the Moluccas—their trade stretching even to China and Japan. At this period they levied tribute on one hundred and fifty native princes, and claimed and exercised a power to sweep from the Indian seas every European vessel that sailed without their permission. Of this mighty dominion scarcely a vestige now exists. The annexation of Portugal to the crown of Spain, and the war waged against the Hollanders, induced the Dutch, who had heretofore been content with the carrying trade between Lisbon and the north of Europe, to examine India; and at the commencement of the seventeenth century they became formidable rivals of the Portuguese, stripping them first of Malacca and Ceylon, then driving them from various settlements on the Malabar coast, and finally usurping their place on the shores of Coromandel. The English were not long behind in establishing a trade in the Eastern hemisphere, and they were followed by the French, who became the most powerful rivals of the former after the dominion and trade of the Portuguese and Dutch had declined. The first charter for the incorporation of the East India Company, as a mercantile body, was granted by Queen Elizabeth on the last day of the sixteenth century, and was one of exclusive trade in the Indian seas for fifteen years, with promise of renewal, and thus was the first step taken in the ascendency of British rule in India (of the progressive steps of which our limits forbid a detail), which has long superseded that of the Mogul emperors as the dominant power, and has extended itself over parts of the country that never owned subjection to those mighty monarchs.*

Nepaul.—This territory is situated on the southern slope of the Himalaya mountains, extending nearly 400 miles, with a breadth of about 100 miles. Rice, grains, cotton, and sugar, are cultivated on terraces along the sides of the declivities. Domestic animals are numerous. Copper, iron, lead, and zinc mines are wrought. The manufactures are chiefly domestic. The interior trade is considerable. The government is administered by a rajah. The Ghorkas established the kingdom about a century since, and are the ruling people. Population, 2,000,000. Catmandoo is the capital.

Bootan.—Bootan is situated to the east of Nepaul, is about 200 miles in length, by 90 in breadth. It is a cold, mountainous country, remarkable for its

* The first territorial acquisitions of the East India Company were made by purchase, in 1798. In 1708 a new charter was granted, giving the Company the exclusive privilege of trading eastward of the Cape of Good Hope. In 1813 the trade between Great Britain and India was thrown open; and on the renewal of the charter in 1833 the China monopoly was abolished. The present charter of the Company expires during 1853. Until within a few years, travellers could only reach India and China by a voyage of over 15,000 miles around the Cape of Good Hope, occupying about 150 days. On the abolition of the East India Company's monopoly of the trade of India, in 1833, efforts were made to bring India within thirty days' postal distance of London, by means of steamers, from Southampton to Alexandria, Egypt, thence across the desert to Suez, whence steamers would complete the route to Ceylon, Calcutta, Singapore, and Hong-Kong. Travellers proceed from Southampton down the English channel, across the bay of Biscay, along the coasts of Portugal and Spain to Gibraltar, thence through the Mediterranean, along the northern coast of Africa to Algiers, Malta, and Alexandria. Here the passengers and mails are disembarked. The latter are immediately despatched on camels direct for Suez, without passing through Cairo; the former embark in covered boats on the Mahmoudie canal, are towed by a steamboat to Atfee, on the Nile, where they change into a river steam-vessel, which conveys them in about thirty hours to Boulac on the Nile, the port of Cairo. Omnibi and donkeys carry the passengers to Cairo (two miles). After a rest of twenty-four hours, or the announcement by telegraph from Suez that the steamer is ready, the passengers travel in strong omnibi, carrying each six passengers, and drawn by four horses, across the desert, a distance of eighty-six miles. At intervals of ten miles there are post-houses, where a change of horses takes place, and refreshment is obtained. At the central station a few hours' halt are allowed for repose. Arrived at Suez, the passengers and mails are embarked, and proceed down the Red sea, pass almost within view of Mount Sinai, near Jedda and Mocha, through the straits of Bab-el-Mandeb (or gate of tears) to Aden, a British station and fortress. Thence the route lies in a south-easterly direction across the Indian ocean to Point de Galle, in Ceylon. Here steam-vessels take the passengers and mails across the bay of Bengal, down the straits of Malacca to Singapore, and up the China sea to Hong-Kong. The main or first-class steamer proceeds from Galle up the bay of Bengal to Madras and Calcutta; a small steamer conveys along the Malabar coast the mails and passengers to Bombay. There are several other routes in operation, or projected, to reach the same points; and persons can go to Alexandria by railroad and diligence through Europe.

numerous castles, and its ingenious suspension bridges. Tassisudon and Punakka are the capitals. The actual chief is called Deb-Rajah. The Dhar-Marajah is the nominal sovereign, and is esteemed divine ; but he has only ecclesiastical power. The state religion is Buddhism, and the country swarms with priests. The people, supposed to be about a million, are barbarous and superstitious.

Other Possessions.—Portuguese India is reduced to the territory of Goa, on the west coast, between Concan and Canara ; Damaun, in Gujrat, and the island of Diu, on the west coast of Kattiwar. The French possessions consist of Pondichery, and Karikal, in the Carnatic; Yanaon, in the Northern Circars ; Chandernagore, in Bengal ; and Mahe, in Malabar. The Danish Territory consists of Tranquebar, on the Coromandel coast, and Serampore, in Bengal.

Ceylon.—The island of Ceylon, situated between 5° 56′ and 9° 50′ north latitude, and 80° to 82° east longitude, has an extreme length of about 270 miles from north to south, with an extreme breadth of 145 miles (an average of 100), and a superficial area of about 24,664 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—The interior of the island is formed of ranges of high mountains, in general not approaching nearer to the sea than forty miles, with a belt of rich alluvial earth, nearly surrounding the island, and well-watered by numerous rivers and streams. A picturesque table-land occupies the southern centre, and thence, toward the coast is a continuous range of low hills, and elevated flat land, extending nearly to the seashore. To the west the country is flat, and on the northern shore broken into verdant rocky islets, and a peninsula, named Jafnapatam. The lofty central division of the island varies in elevation above the level of the sea, from 1,000 to 4,000 feet, but the range of table-land may be estimated at from 2,000 to 3,000 feet, extending in length sixty-seven miles by fifty miles wide. From this elevated region arise some conical mountains, from 2,000 to 3,000 feet above the level of the sea. The mountains run, in general, in continuous chains, with the most lovely valleys the sun ever shone on between them ; the hills clothed to the very summits with gigantic forests, from which issue magnificent cascades and foaming cataracts, that form in the valleys placid rivers and babbling brooks, fringed with turfy banks and all the beautiful verdure of the tropics.

Chief Towns.—Colombo, the capital of Ceylon, on the southwest coast, in 6° 57′ north latitude, and 80° east longitude, is protected by a strong fort (built on a peninsula projecting into the ocean), measuring one mile and a quarter in circumference, having seven principal bastions, of different sizes, connected by intervening curtains, and defended by 300 pieces of cannon. Trincomalee is, in a political point of view, very important, not merely as regards Ceylon, but from being, as Nelson described it, "the finest harbor in the world." The vicinity of Trincomalee is a wild uncultivated country, abounding with game of all kinds, from a snipe to an elephant. The Mahavilla Ganga, which runs past Candy, empties itself into the sea not far from Trincomalee. Point de Galle is another strong fortress and excellent roadstead, situated at the southern extremity of the island, distant seventy-eight miles along the seashore, south-southeast from Colombo. Candy, the ancient capital (eighty-five miles from Colombo), is situate in an amphitheatre commanded by forts on the surrounding hills. Newera Ellia is a delightful station, fifty miles southwest from Candy. The road leads through a wild and mountainous country, the scenery always picturesque, sometimes magnificent in the extreme ; at one time a traveller is surrounded by steep and inaccessible mountains, whose sides are clothed with dense forests ; rocks of an enormous size, deep and precipitate ravines, and cataracts rushing with foaming velocity from the heights, diversify the scene.

Productive Resources.—The principal productions of Ceylon are, cinnamon, coffee, cocoa-nut oil, spices, tobacco, salt, precious stones, timber, and coir.

Antiquities.—Near Mantotte are the ruins of a very large city, constructed of brick and mortar, and an immense artificial tank or reservoir for water, the basin of which is sixteen or eighteen miles in extent. Of an antiquity, however, more remote than the foregoing, are various buildings and works toward the interior, constructed of vast stones, elegantly cut and dovetailed-like into each other. No mortar has been used in some of the edifices, which still exist (as if in defiance of the ravaging hand of time), with visible inscriptions on them, which no existing human being can understand. Among the works of this remote age is the lake of Candely, near Trincomalee, which is fifteen miles in circumference, formed by the artificial junction of two hills. Belonging, also, to this age, is a gigantic pagoda, the base of whose cone is a quarter of a mile in circumference, surrounded by an enclosure one mile in circumference, consisting of a broad wall of brick and mortar, with numerous cells in it, and an entering colonnade of stone pillars ten feet high. Ruined tracks of several very extensive canals exist. The largest recorded bridge was one in the southern part of the island, stated to be 280 cubits (630 feet) long. The remains of a stone bridge exist near the fort of Kalawo Oya, the stones of which are from eight to fourteen feet long, jointed into one another, and laid in regular lines. To the north of the ruins of this are six pagodas of immense magnitude, the form being half a sphere, with a spire built on it; the two largest are each 270 feet high, of solid brickwork.

Population.—The population of Ceylon is about 1,500,000, of whom not more than 10,000 are European, or descended from English, Dutch, or Portuguese parents.

History.—The original Singhalese or Ceylonese, are probably descended from a colony of Singhs or Rajpoots (to whom, in appearance, even at the present day, they bear a striking resemblance), 500 years B. C. But the Malabars, it is stated, several times invaded the island 200 years B. C. We have existing evidence that, in remote ages, Ceylon was an extensively peopled and civilized country. In the sixth century Ceylon was the chief mart for eastern commerce. The central situation had led to its ports being frequented by ships from China, India, Arabia, &c., by which means Galle and Columbo, from their favorable situation, became entrepôts for the general commerce of the East. It was visited by the Portuguese in 1505, and in 1518 that nation occupied Colombo, Galle, and other places on the seacoast, where they began to fortify themselves against the Singhalese. In 1656–'57, the Dutch (whom the Candians had called to their aid) expelled the Portuguese. In 1796 the British captured the Dutch forts; in 1803 they took possession of Candy, but were soon driven out; but in 1815 they retook the native capital, and, except a troublesome insurrection, which lasted from 1817 to 1819, have since retained possession of the whole island.

The Lacadive and Maldive Islands.—The groups lie on the west and southwest of Hindostan. The Lacadives belong partly to Great Britain, and partly to her highness the Bebee Canamore; the principal, nine in number, contain about 15,000 inhabitants, a mild and inoffensive race, who occasionally suffer severely from hurricanes, one of which, in April, 1847, destroyed about 1,800 men, women, and children. The Maldive islands are more numerous than the preceding named, and like them low, generally covered with vegetation, and many skirted by groves of cocoa-nut trees. The inhabitants are similar to those on the Lacadives, rather numerous, and hospitable to shipwrecked mariners.

FARTHER INDIA.

Farther India, or India beyond the Ganges, lies to the southeast of Hindostan, and southwest of China, and extends from 2° to 28° north latitude, and 92° to 108° east longitude. It forms a large peninsula, projecting from the above-named countries southward into the Indian ocean, terminating in the long, narrow peninsula of Malacca.

Physical Aspect.—Several extensive ranges of mountains extend from north to south, forming between them wide valleys and maritime lowlands, which are drained and watered by large rivers, the remote sources of which are found in the mountain regions between India and China. The climate is generally hot, and much of the soil is prolific. There is not within the same space on the surface of our globe a region of greater variety; teeming with active, industrious, and commercial people; abounding in all tropical products, affording marts for foreign trade to an incalculable extent, and advantageously situated in the route between eastern and western Asia, Australia, and India, and the Atlantic and Pacific oceans.

Rivers.—The principal rivers of Farther India are, the Irawaddy (a noble stream which passes through the Birman territories, and falls into the bay of Bengal at Rangoon), the Saluen, Meinam, Thalean, and May-kuang or river of Cambodia, all flowing in a general direction from north to south, and emptying into the gulfs and bays of the southern coast.

Political Divisions.—The names, extent, and population of the states which compose Farther India are as follows:—

	Area in square miles.	Population.	Chief Towns.	Population.
Birmah	200,000	8,000,000	Ava	150,000
Siam	220,000	2,800,000	Bankok	100,000
Anam	120,000	10,000,000	Hue	30,000
Laos	280,000	2,800,000	Zemmai	25,000
British Territories	35,160	250,000	Amherst	1,000
Malacca	72,000	200,000		
Total	927,160	24,050,000		

Birmah.—Birmah comprehends the kingdoms of Ava and Pegu. Ava is bounded by Assam on the north, on the south by Siam, the sea, and the British province of Martaban, on the west by the bay of Bengal and Arracan, and on the east by Siam, and the Laos or Shan territories. The country is hilly. It is about 560 miles long by 300 broad; well-watered, fertile, and thickly peopled by a sturdy and industrious race. Rice is the principal crop, though cotton, indigo, sugar, and various fruits, are cultivated. Mineral products are numerous. The inhabitants excel in casting bells, working gold and silver, and some other manufactures. The government of Birmah is despotic. Ava, the capital, situated on the Irawaddy, in 21° 45′ north, and 96° east, is a well-built city. Pegu is situated south and east of Ava, between 16° and 19° north, and 94° and 98° east; length 240 miles; breadth 180 miles; area 43,000 square miles; generally flat, and fertile, with abundance of teak and other fine timber. Rangoon is the seaport, and a place of some trade. A part of Birmah has recently been subjugated by the British troops, and the whole will probably soon be annexed to British India.

Siam.—Siam contains an area of 220,000 square miles, and is situated between Birmah and Cochin-China. It is bounded on its eastern and western frontiers by a chain of mountains, on the south by the gulf of Siam, and on the north by tributary and independent tribes. It is traversed from north to south by the large river Meinam, which disembogues into the gulf of Siam, in 13°

40′ north, and 101° 10′ east. The climate is mild and salubrious. Bankok is a large commercial city. It consists of three parts; the city proper, a palace on an island, enclosed by walls, with temples and gardens, and the floating town, consisting of moveable bamboo rafts. The Siamese are an effeminate race, and, like the Cochin-Chinese, Birmese, and other surrounding nations, under a complete despotism. Buddhism is the prevalent religion.* The country is fertile, and produces large quantities of sugar, rice, cotton, and other useful products. Rice is the principal food.

Anam.—The empire of Anam consists of Cochin-China, Tonquin or Anam proper, part of Cambodia, and several islands in the Chinese sea, along which it extends upward of 1,200 miles. Cochin-China consists of a long, narrow strip of land, extending more than 600 miles along the Chinese sea, but nowhere exceeds 150 miles in breadth. It is a series of small transverse valleys, divided by so many spurs from the long range of mountains which forms its western boundaries. The coast is beautiful and grand; the shore is indented with numerous bays, and the mountains, which rise several thousand feet in height, are broken into numerous valleys and ravines. Tonquin expands to a much greater width than Cochin-China, and consists chiefly of a large alluvial plain, watered by the Sang-Koi and other rivers. It is the only part of the empire that is rich in minerals, and produces large quantities of gold, silver, copper, and iron. Hue, in Cochin-China, the capital and residence of the emperor, is a large and strongly-fortified city, nine miles from the sea, upon the bank of a wide navigable river, which falls into the gulf of Tonquin. It is of a square form, about six miles in circuit, surrounded by a rampart three feet high, which is cased with brick, kept in excellent order, and protected by bastions, all in the European style. One side is washed by the river, and the other three by a deep wide canal. The interior is laid out in squares, but the town is rather paltry. The palace is surrounded by handsome barracks. The population is 30,000, and it is said that it would require 40,000 men to garrison the fortifications. Cambodia is an extensive country on the east of the gulf of Siam, and stretches from the China sea to the parallel of nearly 20° north. The Cambodia river is said to be 1,500 miles long, from its source in the Chinese province of Yunnan, about 22° north to its embouche in 10° north. It flows through a rich valley, between the mountain ranges of Siam, and of Cochin-China. Saigon, the capital, is on the Cambodia river. The Cambodians were long engaged in war with Siam; in 1820 the province was divided into three parts; one was given to Siam, one to Cochin-China, and one was left independent.

Laos.—Laos, or the Shan country, is a central region occupying the space between Birmah, Siam, and China. It is but little known; but said to be elevated, healthy, and to abound in metals. The Shan or T'hay people frequent the great annual fair in Ava, and bring down sugar, silk, lac, lacquered ware, gold, copper, lead, and iron. They are a brave people, and during the war between Birmah and England, 8,000 Shan troops fought well, and were accompanied by three young and handsome women, who rode about among the sol-

* Buddhism is a modification of Bramanism, and differs from it, first, in being a more refined, benevolent, and philosophical doctrine than that taught in the Vedas or sacred books of the Bramans, which the Buddhists reject; secondly, in the worship of deified saints, and other subordinate gods; thirdly, the belief that the soul, after a variety of transmigrations, will become continually more purified, till it is united to the body of a beatified saint on earth, and absorbed into the universal mind on leaving this body. They believe in an endless series of dissolutions and reproductions, till at last the world itself will be dissolved and reproduced. They forbid the destruction of animal life, and are far less burdened with minute ceremonies than the Bramans. This religion, with various modifications, extends over China, Japan, Tartary, and all the East. Buddha, its founder, is thought to have lived about the sixth century before Christ. The Thibetians consider the Dalai Lama, the chief of their religion, to be an incarnation of the Deity, and conceive him to be omnipotent and immortal, and reappearing in another body upon his dissolution; but they are, in fact, Buddhists, like the other nations of the East.

diers, exciting them to feats of arms. One of these Amazons fell mortally wounded in a battle near Prone.

The British Territories.—Martaban, Tavoy, and Tenasserim, and the Mergui Archipelago, south of Pegu, and east of Siam, were ceded to England by the Birmese after the war of 1825. These districts are governed by civil and military officers sent from Calcutta, and are under the control of the East India Company, as is also the whole of British India, in trust for the queen of England. These British possessions extend along the bay of Bengal from 16° 30′ to 19° 35′ north latitude, and are in length about 420 miles, by 50 miles in breadth. Mergui, the capital of the British provinces, is in 12° 12′ north latitude, and 98° 25′ east; has about 10,000 inhabitants, is favorably situated for trade, celebrated for teak and teak-built ships, has a fine climate, fertile soil, abundance of coal. The Andaman islands, situated on the eastward of Tenasserim, in the bay of Bengal, belong to England. The Nicobar islands, to the south, belong to Denmark.

Malacca.—The Malacca peninsula extends from the second to the eleventh degree of north latitude; in length about 775 miles, with an average breadth of 125 miles. It is the land of the Malays; has a group of mountains stretching from the northern to the southern extremity, from which numerous streams descend at either side, through plains and rocky eminences, and flow into the straits of Malacca on the west, or into the gulf of Siam on the east. The seacoast is covered with tropical plants. At night the air is perfumed with the odors of the rich spice groves. The country is full of mineral wealth; gold, iron, and tin abound. The exports are coffee, pepper, nutmegs, catechu, birds' nests, trepang, and seaweed, the latter for the Chinese market. The peninsula is not densely peopled; some of the Malays are piratical, but the majority are peaceful agriculturists. There are three British settlements contiguous to the straits of Malacca: 1, Singapore; 2, Malacca; 3, Pulo Penang, or Prince of Wales island, and Wellesley province. Singapore, in 1° 17′ north, and 103° 51′ east, is an island 27 miles long by 15 broad; area, 270 square miles, at the extremity of the Malayan peninsula. It was established as a British settlement in 1818–'19; and its success as a commercial depôt has been great, from its position on the straits between Sumatra and the mainland, through which vessels pass on their voyages from India to China. It is also one of the most important missionary stations in the East. It contains more than 50,000 inhabitants, and has a maritime traffic of about $50,000,00. The Malacca settlement is on the west side of the main land of the peninsula, in 2° 14′ north latitude, and 102° 12′ east longitude. The British territory stretches about forty miles along shore, by thirty miles inland, and has an area of 800 square miles. There are about 60,000 inhabitants; the trade is small, but the resources are numerous. Mount Ophir (called by the natives Lealdang) has an elevation of 5,000 feet above the town of Malacca. The settlement was obtained from the Dutch, in exchange for Bencoolen. Pulo Penang, or Prince of Wales island, on the west coast of the Malayan peninsula, in 5° 15′ to 5° 29′ north, and longitude 100° east, is sixteen miles long, by eight to 12 miles broad; area, 160 square miles. The island is mountainous, and very beautiful. It yields largely nutmegs, cloves, and sugar. It is under the government of Singapore. Wellesley province is a strip of territory along the adjacent coast of the Malayan peninsula; it is thirty-five miles long by four miles broad, and produces excellent sugar. It was obtained from the king of Quedah, in 1800. Penang was the dower of a Quedah princess, who, in 1785, married Captain Light, commander of an East India ship, and it was by him transferred to the East India Company.

CHINA.

The empire of China, comprising China proper, and several external territories of vast extent, lies between latitude 18° and 56° north, and longitude 70° and 144° east. It is bounded on the east and southeast by those arms of the Pacific ocean known as the gulf of Tartary, the sea of Japan, the Yellow sea, the strait of Formosa, the Chinese sea, and the gulf of Tonquin; on the land sides by Tonquin, Laos, and Birmah; southwest and west by Independent Tartary, and north, for the immense extent of of 3,300 miles by Asiatic Russia. Its extent, from the borders of Kokhan and Budukshan to the sea of Okhotsk, is 3,350 miles, and its greatest width, from the frontiers of Daouria north to Tonquin south, is 2,100 miles, enclosing, altogether, a space of about 5,000,000 square miles. Thus the Chinese empire includes all the table-land of Eastern Asia—about a third part of the whole continent—or a little less than a tenth part of the habitable globe; and contains within its enormous area the largest amount of population and of wealth united under one government in the world. China proper extends from Peking province in 41° north to Hainan island, gulf of Tonquin, in 18° south latitude, and from the seacoast in 121° east to the frontiers of Thibet in 100° east longitude.

Physical Aspect.—The empire of China exhibits, in its physical conformation, three marked features: an elevated northern region or plateau, on which Peking is situated; an alluvial plain, through which the Yang-tse-kiang and Hoang-ho or Yellow river flow; and a broken, undulating territory in the south, with broad valleys and lofty mountains. In such a vast territory the scenery, as may be expected, is very diversified; thus there are some tracts similar to the swampy plains of Holland, others resembling the mountains and valleys of Switzerland, the fertile plains of Lombardy, the champaigne country of France, the dreary steppes of Russia, the sandy deserts of Africa, or the beautiful hills and dales, the corn and woodlands, of England; the whole exhibiting the same great variety of aspect as is found in the United States. The coastline from Hainan, in 18° to the Chusan archipelago in 30° north, is bold, rugged, and mountainous. North of Chusan, to the Yellow sea, the sea front is low and swampy; thence northward it becomes rocky, with a gradual rise westward.

Mountains.—Two thirds of China proper is studded with hills and mountains, some of whose summits are always covered with snow. The Tien-shan or Celestial mountains extend from 76° to 90° east longitude, and generally along the 22° parallel, dividing Ili, in their course, into the two circuits of Songaria and Turkestan. The space between the Altai and Tien-shan is very much broken up by mountain spurs. Nearly parallel with the Celestial mountains in part of their course is the Nan-shan, Kwan-lun or Koul-kun range of mountains. The Koul-kun starts from the Pushtikhur knot, in latitude 36° north, and runs along eastward in nearly the same parallel through the whole breadth of the table-land, dividing Thibet from the desert of Gobi. The mineral treasures of the Koul-kun are probably great, and its wealth is indicated from the many precious stones brought therefrom. Several ridges branch off from this range, and form so many intervening valleys, which, though more or less broken up, present many fertile spots, which are inhabited by a hardy people, and produce an abundance of the necessaries of life. The Himalayas, after forming the southern boundary of Thibet, range eastward across the country, forming the watershed between the basin of the Kiang-ku and the rivers which flow south to the ocean. Thus the country is almost surrounded and defined by a wall of high mountains, and the outline of the mountain chains around and within describes sufficiently the principal features to give an idea of the country.

Rivers and Lakes.—The rivers of China form one of its most distinguished features. The Yang-tse-kiang or "Girdle of China" is said to be 2,283 miles long, and probably rises in the mountain ridge whence the Brahmapootra and Irawaddy rivers have their origin. The embouche is between 31° and 32° north latitude, thirty miles wide, divided into several channels by low islands, and is navigable for 200 miles for the largest class vessels. By means of canals and lakes, this river is connected with the whole empire. The Hoang-ho or Yellow river is about 2,000 miles in length, but from its low and loose banks, and rapid floods, not so available for navigation as the Yang-tse-kiang. The other principal streams are, the Pieho, Tien-tsin or White river, Tang-keang, Hang-keang-weiho, Hanho, Sang-koi, Pearl or Canton rivers. Lakes can not be considered as prominent objects in the geographical system of China; yet there are two, the Tong-ting in Hoonan, and the Po-yang in Kiang-si, the former about 250 miles in circuit, the latter nearly half that size. There are also chains of small lakes along the great canal and in other quarters.

Islands.—The coast is lined, throughout its whole extent, with multitudes of islands. The Chusan Archipelago, off the coast of Cheh-kiang, is a detached group, forming the termination of the mountain chain, which passes through that province. The island of Formosa or Taiwan forms a large link in that chain, connecting the islands of Japan and Loo-choo with Luçonia. Between Formosa and the coast lie the Panghu islands; but this group is much less in extent and number than the Chusan islands. The island of Hainan, between 18° and 20° north latitude, eight miles from the main land, is 150 miles long, and 75 broad. Population over a million. Kiang-tchou is the capital.

Climate.—The temperature of China is very low for its geographical position. Its climate is one of extremes. In the north it is very hot in summer, and cold in winter. At Peking frost and snow commence in December, and last until February. At Canton snow is almost unknown. The heat in the southern districts is intense.

Productive Resources.—The more important products of China are, tea, sugar, rice, silk, cotton, camphor,* quicksilver, &c. Every acre of arable land is employed in raising food; even the mountains are cut into terraces for cultivation, and irrigated with water drawn up by machinery from the streams below. For this purpose also large reservoirs are built on the tops of the mountains to collect the rain, and bamboo pipes conduct it thence to the fields. Tea is grown chiefly between the parallels of 27° and 31° north latitude. The consumption in China of all sorts of common tea is enormous. The exportation began to England, by sending, in 1669, a canister containing 143 pounds; and the annual consumption of Europe and America is now 80,000,000 pounds.† Silk is prepared in vast quantities in the central provinces of China.

* There are many curious trees in China that are unknown to us, among which are those that produce camphor, tallow, and wax. The camphor-tree grows to a great height, and is one of the most useful timber-trees in the empire, as it does not split, and is never destroyed by insects. It is chiefly used for chests, and household furniture, and sometimes in boat-building. The luxuriant foliage of this fine tree is of the brightest green, and from the fresh-gathered branches is obtained the resinous gum, which we call camphor, and with which the wood is highly scented. The tallow-tree has some resemblance to the aspen and birch, the branches being long and flexible, and the leaves of a very dark green, which, in autumn, turn red, with a purple tint. The fruit, or rather seed, is contained in brown pods, that grow in bunches at the extremity of each bough, and on opening, disclose three small white berries, which hang very prettily by their slender strings when the husk has completely fallen off. These have each a small nut in the middle, but the white coating is the tallow, of which candles are made; and thus the Chinese, who, from religious scruples, kill but few animals as compared with the number killed in the United States, are furnished with a vegetable substance, which supplies the deficiency of the material used here for the manufacture of candles; but as the tallow is softer, and melts more readily than ours, they harden it with a coating of wax, which is also obtained from a tree, or large shrub, of which, however, it is no part, being formed upon it by little insects that settle, at certain seasons of the year, in such vast swarms upon the tree, that it is completely covered with them, and becomes encrusted with a white, hard, shining wax, so that it is commonly known by the name of the wax-tree.

† China seems to be the native country of the tea-plant. The finest and best flavored teas come from the Bohea mountains. They are obtained with the greatest labor, from the almost inaccessible sides of the mountains, and kept for the use of the imperial court. Plantations of tea are formed by sowing the seeds, which are set with regularity; in the first year the middle shoot is stopped, to stunt the growth of the plant, which causes it to become bushy and throw out a greater quantity of leaves; and after the third year the crop of leaves is fit

MANUFACTURES.—The Chinese are deservedly celebrated for their industry and ingenuity. Their silk and cotton fabrics, their porcelain, embroidery, dyeing, varnishing, ivory-cutting, colors, paper, ink, and many other articles of art and skill, foreigners have in vain endeavored to equal. They have long been acquainted with the art of working metals; they make musical instruments, filagree-work, cut and polish precious stones; engraving on wood, and printing from blocks, is with them as old as the tenth century, and their powers of copying and reproducing works of art from other countries is astonishing. The gold and tinsel cloths of Peking stand deservedly in high estimation. The embroidery of the Chinese also is peculiar to themselves, and is not only unequalled, but is immeasurably superior to that of any other nation.

CANALS.—The canals of China are almost innumerable. The Yunho or Transit river or canal was constructed in the fourteenth century, and is a stupendous work. It connects the Yang-tse-kiang and Hoang-ho rivers where they are about 100 miles apart. The Grand canal is 800 miles long, and its banks are protected by masonry.

GREAT WALL.—The Great Wall of China is regarded as one of the wonders of the world; and except the pyramids of Egypt, may be considered as the most ancient monument of human labor now existing. It is 1,500 miles long, 20 to 25 feet high, with towers, 48 feet high, and 40 wide, at intervals of 100 yards. It commences on the seacoast in latitude 40° 4′ north, longitude 120° east, runs from east to west over the summits of mountains, some of which rise to the height of 5,225 feet, across the deepest vales, over wide rivers, by means of arches, and in many parts is doubled and trebled to command important passes,

for gathering. In spring and autumn the shrubs are manured, and the ground is weeded and turned around the roots at least four times in each year. The mode of manuring the plantations differs in various parts of the empire: but the most usual manure employed is a compost of night-soil and calcareous clay, which is kept prepared ready for use in large walled-in pits adjoining the cultivated land. In seven years the leaves become thick, hard, and rough, when they are cut close to the ground, which causes them to shoot anew, and produce an exuberant supply of succulent leaves: after thirty years, it is said, the shrubs become useless, and are then rooted up. The inferior teas, however, which are designated by the Chinese as "hill-teas," receive but little care from the cultivator, who contents himself with weeding them about twice in the year, collecting the weeds about the roots, where they are left to rot. The flower of the tea-shrub is white, composed of five leaves, and in shape is similar to the rose, and the berry resembles a small, moist nut. There are usually four gatherings of the tea: the first is in early spring, when the young, delicate, and succulent leaves are plucked, from which the Pekoe tea is made: the second takes place about the 20th of April, when the leaves are large, which produces fragrant, full-flavored tea: the third is about the 6th of June, after the leaves have shot out anew; this tea has little smell, is weak in flavor, and of a very dark color: the fourth takes place after the summer-solstice, when another crop of leaves has sprung forth, and this tea is coarse in smell, weak in flavor, but of a lighter color than the last. The process of gathering the tea is one of great nicety and importance. Each leaf is plucked separately from the stalk; the hands of the gatherer are kept carefully clean, and, in collecting some of the fine sorts, he hardly ventures to breathe on the plant. A laborer collects from four to ten, and sometimes fifteen pounds a day. From the first gathering the green tea, called imperial, and the black tea, called Pekoe, are made; these are not exported. From the second and third crops are manufactured the green trees, hyson and imperial, and the black teas denominated souchong and congou. The light and inferior leaves separated from the hyson by winnowing, form a tea called hyson-skin. From the fourth crop is manufactured the coarsest species of black tea, called bohea; and this crop is mixed with an inferior tea, grown in a district called Woping, near Canton, together with such tea as remained unsold the last season. The process of drying, which should commence as soon as possible after the leaves have been gathered, differs according to the quality of the tea. Some are only exposed under a shed to the sun's rays, and frequently turned. The method of drying green tea is as follows: A drying-house will contain from five to ten or twenty small furnaces, at the top of each of which is a flat-bottomed and shallow iron pan; there is also a long, low table, covered with mats, on which the leaves are spread and rolled, after they have gone through the first stage of the process, which we may call baking. When the pans are heated to the proper temperature, a few pounds of fresh-gathered leaves are placed upon them: the fresh and juicy leaves crack as they touch the pan, and it is the business of the operator to stir and shift them about as rapidly as possible with his bare hands, until they become too hot to be touched without pain. At this moment he takes off the leaves with a kind of shovel, like a fan, and pours them on the mats before the rollers, who, taking them up by small quantities at a time, roll them in the palms of their hands, in one direction only: while assistants with fans are employed to fan the leaves, in order that they may be the quicker cooled, and retain their curl the longer. To secure the complete evaporation of all moisture from the leaves, as well as the stability of their curl, the operation of drying and rolling is repeated two or three times, or even oftener, if necessary—the pans being, on each successive occasion, less and less heated, and the whole process performed with increasing slowness and caution. The leaves are then separated into their several classes, and stored away for domestic use or for sale. It was, at one time, supposed that the green teas were dried on copper pans, and that they owed their fine green color to that circumstance, which was also said to render a free use of them noxious to the human frame; but this idea is now held to be without any foundation, the difference between green and black tea depending on the locality, and manner of cultivation and drying. The experiment of the cultivation of the tea-plant in our own country has been successfully made by Junius Smith, Esq., of South Carolina, who expresses the opinion that the climate here is adapted to its culture, from Maine to Florida. The day may eventually come when this universal luxury will be produced in the United States to an extent that will nearly or quite obviate the necessity of its importation.

and has four great gates. Its breadth is sufficient to allow of six horsemen riding abreast on its summit. It was built by the emperor Chi-hoang-ti, B. C. 246, to protect the Chinese from the incursions of the Mantchu Tartars into China; who, however, climbed over it about A. D. 1640, and conquered China, of which they have kept possession ever since; the reigning monarch, and all the principal officers, being always of Tartar extraction.

Political Divisions.—The empire of China is divided into three principal parts, viz.: China Proper, or the eighteen provinces, is, with trivial additions, the country which was conquered by the Manchus, in 1644; Manchuria, or the native country of the Manchus, lies north of the Great Wall, and east of the Daourian chain to the Pacific; the Colonial Possessions include Mongolia, Ilí (comprising Songaria and Eastern Turkestan), Koko-nor, and Thibet. The names of the eighteen provinces of China proper, with their respective areas, population, capital towns, &c., are given in the following table:—

Provinces.	Area, sq. miles.	Population.	Capital Towns.
Pe-che-le	58,949	27,990,871	Peking.*
Shan-tung	65,104	28,958,764	Tsi-nan.
Shan-se	55,268	14,004,210	Tchao-yuen.
Honan	65,104	23,037,171	Cai-fong.
Keang-soo	92,661	37,843,501	Nanking.†
Gan-hwuy		34,168,059	Gan-king.
Kiang-si	72,176	30,426,999	Nan-chang.
Foo-keen	53,480	14,777,410	Foo-choo.
Cheh-kiang	39,150	26,256,784	Hang-tchou.
Hoo-pih	144,770	37,370,098	Vou-tchang.
Hoonan		18,652,507	Tchang-tcha.
Shen-se	154,008	10,207,256	Se-gan.
Kan-suh		15,193,135	Lan-tchou.
Sze-chuen	166,800	21,435,678	Tching-tou.
Quang-tung or Canton	79,456	19,147,030	Canton‡
Quang-si	78,250	7,313,895	Quei-ling.
Yun-nan	107,969	5,561 320	Yun-nan.
Kwei-choo	64,554	5,288,219	Koei-yang.
Total	1,297,999	367,632,907	

Commerce.—The commerce of China is very active, both inland and maritime; the Chinese are, in fact, "a nation of shopkeepers." An extensive

* Peking, the modern capital of China, is about twenty-five miles in circumference. It is divided into two distinct parts, viz., the northern or Tartar city, and the southern or Chinese city. The former, which is inhabited chiefly by Tartars, is surrounded by a wall with nine gates, always guarded by soldiers, and contains the imperial palace, which, with its magnificent gardens, stands in the centre, within the space of about five miles in circumference, enclosed by another wall, and called the Forbidden city, as no one may enter it but privileged persons. The Tartar city contains the residences of the grandees of the court, halls of the Six Tribunals, Hanlin college, superb temples, a Mohammedan mosque, and many other public buildings. The principal streets are long and wide, and contain numerous shops, as well as private houses; but they are not paved, which is a great inconvenience in wet weather; neither are they lighted at night: but as no one is allowed to be abroad after dark, unless on some very particular occasion, it is not of much importance that they should be so, particularly as any one who is obliged to go out must carry a lantern with him. Large spaces of ground in this part of Peking are occupied by ornamental gardens belonging to the rich mandarins. It is adorned also with a fine lake, a mile and a half in length, and more than a quarter of a mile in breadth, crossed by a bridge of nine arches, constructed entirely of white marble. The streets of Peking are crowded, noisy, and bustling. It is common for the lower orders to work at their several trades in the street. Barbers, cobblers, tinkers, and blacksmiths, set up their apparatus wherever they obtain a job. Pedlars, medicine-venders, ballad-singers, and mountebanks, also contribute no less to the noise than to the throng. The imperial palace at Peking is a vast assemblage of buildings, both large and small, built within a variety of courts, among which they are dispersed along with pavilions, porticoes, and canals, and the detached buildings are connected together by means of galleries and covered passages. The *tout ensemble* presents a most extraordinary appearance; the roofs being tiled with yellow porcelain, give an effect of burnished gold. Extensive gardens and plantations are annexed to the royal habitation, and the whole being enclosed within a substantial brick wall, it is more like a city than a palace. The population of Peking is supposed to be about two millions.

† Nanking, the ancient capital of China, was once the most celebrated city in the empire, whether regard be had to its extent, its buildings, its manufactures, or the character of its inhabitants. It has again been rendered famous from its being the place where the English compelled the Chinese to submit to their terms of peace, in August, 1842. The area of Nanking, enclosed by walls, is much larger than that of Peking, but the present city only occupies one corner of the enclosure. Reduced, however, as it is, it still continues to be one of the principal manufacturing towns of the empire. Its silks, cottons, and paper, are preferred to all others, and it is from here that the *nankeen* of commerce is brought. Learning also continues to flourish, and more physicians are manufactured in Nanking than in any other city. Its principal and most celebrated building is a pagoda or octagonal tower, of nine stories high, ascended by 884 steps. The material is a fine white tile, which, being painted in various colors, has the appearance of porcelain, and all the parts are so neatly joined as to appear to form only one piece. The galleries are filled with images, and set round with bells, which tinkle in the wind, and on the top is a large pine-apple-shaped ornament, consisting, as the Chinese say, of solid gold. The population of Nanking numbers about half a million.

‡ Canton (Kwang-choo) is situated on Choo-keang or Pearl river, 100 miles from the sea. It is a very ancient city, and was, till within a few years, the sole emporium of European and American trade with China. Canton is built in the usual Chinese style, square and regular, surrounded by high walls, and pierced with gates. It is divided into the old and new cities by a transverse wall, but the suburbs are fully as large as the enclosed parts. The factories of the foreign merchants are outside the walls, on the banks of the river. There are about 600 streets in Canton; few of the houses exhibit any splendor; the dwellings of the poor are miserable and crowded, and even in the houses of the wealthy there is little comfort. The governor's palace is a spacious, but by no means elegant building. The other public buildings and temples are numerous. The population is estimated at 1,500,000. Many thousands of people live continually on the water, in a sort of floating houses, ranged in lines like streets. Canton, Amoy, Foo-choo, Ning-po, and Shang-hai, the five principal ports of China, were opened to foreign commerce by the treaty of peace made with England in 1842.

coasting-trade is conducted in junks, and about twenty of these strange-looking vessels, of large size, annually visit Singapore, Siam, Java, Borneo, &c., where several hundred thousand Chinese are located. Canton is still the principal seat of foreign commerce; and the whole imports, exclusive of opium and treasure, are in value about $20,000,000; the exports, $25,000,000; and the tonnage inward 150,000 tons. The foreign trade at the other four ports is in value $6,000,000 imports, and $6,000,000 exports. The American imports into China are in value about $3,000,000; and their exports thence are $8,000,000. The total foreign trade with China is $60,000,000. The opium trade, that fearful traffic, which is still carried on, in spite of the Chinese laws, which make the introduction or use of opium by Chinese a crime punishable with death, commenced toward the close of the last century, when the exportation from India to China amounted annually to 2,000 chests; it now exceeds 45,000 chests, of the value of $25,000,000. By the use of this poisonous drug, grown in British India, and conveyed to the coasts of China under the protection of the British flag, thousands of the unhappy Chinese are being rapidly destroyed, body and soul; and a nation admirably adapted for the reception of Christianity, are prejudiced against its doctrines by the conduct of those who, under Providence, might have been the means of imparting to them the blessings of salvation. The opium traffic is also as impolitic as it is unholy; for the four or five millions sterling now devoted to a vicious indulgence, might otherwise be appropriated, at least in part, to the purchase of foreign manufactures.

Education.—Such is the estimation in which education is held in China, that all state employments are given by competition, as school and college prizes to the best scholars. Schools for youth are abundant in every part of the empire; and education is so general, and its cost so reasonable, that reading and writing may be almost said to be universal. The schools established all over the empire are superintended by various officers appointed by government. In every district there is a sort of literary chancellor; but early aspirants are examined by superintendents, who make the circuit of their district twice a year for that purpose. To procure the highest state offices, an examination before the national college or Han-lin is necessary: but the very pinnacle of fame is only arrived at by being examined by the emperor himself. Every literary honor confers the title of mandarin. Memory is the chief object of admiration—the ability to repeat the greatest number of the wise sayings of the ancient sages.

Religion.—There is no religion in China actually supported by the state, and Yu, the doctrine of Confucius, is the only one countenanced by it. But there are two other sects; Fo or Buddhism, and Taou, or that of the "rationalists." The first acknowledges a Supreme Being, and believes the emperor his sole vicegerent on earth. Heaven, earth, the elements, Confucius, gods of various attributes, saints, the emperor, &c., are objects of worship; the rites in performing which are watched over with the most jealous care by the Le-poo or board of rites. The doctrine of Confucius fills the world with genii, demons, and the spirits of deceased worthies, who are supposed to have each their separate duties and influences assigned to them. Buddhism is the creed of the masses in China, and is supported by the mendicancy of its priests. The latter practise celibacy, dress in a similar manner to monks, and the devotees use holy water, and a rosary to keep account of their prayers. The professors of Taouism pretend to magic, alchemy, and to be possessed of the elixir of long life; practise glaring impositions, and inculcate the most puerile superstitions. They encourage a belief in ghosts and evil spirits; make use of spells and talismans, lucky and unlucky birds, and a system of tricks called *fung-shuey*, by which they pretend to choose lucky situations for building houses and tombs, and a hundred other fallacies, by which these impostors contrive to fill their purses. Much has been done by American missionaries, since China was

opened to foreigners, to introduce Christianity, and more enlarged views of education and science.

Government.—The government of China is theoretically a patriarchal despotism. The emperor's will is law, and he is not responsible to any earthly tribunal. Practically, however, his power is comparatively circumscribed. In China everything is determined by custom, or by immemorial practice, from which it would be highly dangerous for even the emperor to depart. The Chinese is emphatically a government of precedent; and his celestial majesty is, in reality, the creature of custom and etiquette. All employments are bestowed, according to fixed rules, on those who have obtained certificates of proficiency after passing their examinations. The penal laws of the empire are printed in a cheap form, and widely diffused; and one of the sixteen discourses annually read to the public, inculcates the propriety of every man making himself acquainted with them, and with the penalties consequent on their infraction. Although, therefore, the government of China be despotical in its form, and every device be employed to give to the emperor not merely a paternal, but a sacred character, he in fact governs according to long-established rules; and with probably as little admixture of despotism as is to be found in most governments. The emperor is aided by a council of ministers, whom he may or may not consult. The executive is divided into boards or deputies of war, justice, finance, literature, &c.

History.—Chinese tradition dates as far back as to B. C. 2204, about 140 years after the flood. Their first great emperor, Fohi, must, according to their statements, have been contemporary with Noah, and is said to have reigned 115 years. The emperor Yu or Yao, after the great inundation, devoted his life to draining off the waters, and reclaiming the land. Confucius, who died in the 73d year of his age, B. C. 479, wrote two histories, one the "Book of Records." or Shoo-king, and the other the Chuntsew, or history of his own times. The fabulous or traditional history ends B. C. 722, from which time there has been a credible history of China, which has been governed by successive dynasties: the Chow dynasty, of twenty sovereigns, lasted from B. C. 1001 to B. C. 286: Tsin dynasty, two sovereigns, B. C. 246 to 210; Han dynasty, 24 sovereigns, B. C. 203 to A. D. 252; Tsin dynasty, 11 sovereigns, A. D. 255 to 419; Sung dynasty, 8 sovereigns, 420 to 477; Tse dynasty, 5 sovereigns, 480 to 499; Leang dynasty, 5 sovereigns, 502 to 552; Chin dynasty, 5 sovereigns, 557 to 582; Suy dynasty, 4 sovereigns, 590 to 617; Tang and other dynasties, about 20 sovereigns, from 619 to 960; Sung dynasty, 8 sovereigns, 960 to to 1265; Mongol dynasty, 9 sovereigns, 1279 to 1332; Ming dynasty, 6 sovereigns, 1368 to 1644; Taetsing, the founder of the present Tartar or Mantchu dynasty, dethroned Hwan-tsung, the last of the Ming dynasty, and eight sovereigns of the Tartar race have since reigned in succession. The Great Wall was finished B. C. 246; paper invented B. C. 180; compass invented B. C. 140; printing from blocks invented A. D. 220. Cotton was manufactured two centuries before the Christian era, and silk was used in the time of Confucius. Gunpowder, cannon, sugar, bell-making, porcelain, the smelting and combination of metals, were all known in China centuries before their introduction into Europe. A. D. 166, Marcus Antoninus sent an embassy to China, which then, and until the present Tartar usurpation in 1644, communicated with all countries. Up to 1842 the foreign trade with China was confined to Canton; four ports in the north, Amoy, Foo-choo, Ning-po, and Shang-hai, are now open to foreign commerce, but there is little trade with any but the latter. Hostilities between England and China commenced in 1839; in July, 1840, the island of Chusan was captured by the British troops; Canton was taken 25th May, 1841; and, after sixteen actions, the war was terminated by the storming of Chin-keang-foo, 21st July, 1842. In these actions the number of Chinese killed and wounded was esti-

mated at 18,000 to 20,000; that of the whole British and Indian force was 69 killed and 451 wounded. The Chinese lost 2,118 pieces of ordnance. On the 11th August, 1842, when the British troops were preparing for the assault of Nanking, the Tartar government agreed to the terms of a treaty of peace, which included, among other stipulations, the payment of six millions of dollars for the opium delivered to the Canton authorities in 1839; three millions of dollars for the liquidation of the debts due by the Hong merchants of Canton to British merchants; and twelve millions of dollars on account of the expenses of the war; and the cession of the island of Hong-Kong for ever to the British government. The treaty declared, that "British subjects, with their families and establishments, shall be allowed to reside, for the purpose of carrying on their mercantile pursuits, without molestation or restraint, at the cities and towns of Canton, Amoy, Foo-choo, Ning-po, and Shang-hai;" a privilege which was extended by a supplementary treaty to other nations.* The treaty was ratified by the emperor of China at Peking, October 27, 1842, the island of Chusan being retained as a pledge by the English, until the indemnity money of twenty-one millions of dollars was paid, and the other parts of the treaty fulfilled. It was restored in 1846. In July, 1844, a treaty between China and the United States was negotiated, by the American commissioner, Hon. Caleb Cushing. This treaty embraced all the important stipulations of the two English treaties, and provided further for the erection of hospitals, chapels, and cemeteries, at the five consular ports, and the visits of ships-of-war to any part of the coast, and other privileges, which were also extended to all other nations. An insurrection broke out in some of the Chinese provinces in 1851–'52, which at one period seriously threatened the permanency of the Mantchu dynasty; but it was subsequently checked by the capture and execution of the leading rebel.

Corea.—A remarkable peninsula, situated between the parallels of 34° and 44° north, and intermediate, as regards China and Japan, has a length from north to south of about 450 to 500 miles, a breadth from east to west of 250 to 300 miles, and a seacoast of about 1,500 miles. It is imperfectly known, but reported to be a beautiful, well-watered, fertile country, abounding in various useful products, and containing about 15,000,000 inhabitants. The government is despotic, and perfectly independent, although, on his accession, the king of Corea receives from the sovereign of China a nominal investiture. An annual fair is held in a desert tract, on the northern frontiers of Corea, and attended by both Chinese and Coreans, who, on its termination, return to their respective countries, and have no further intercourse during the year. The language is distinct from that of China. The people are celebrated for their learning, and are industrious, intelligent, polite, and friendly to foreigners. Hanching or King-ki-tao, the capital, is in 36° north latitude, 15° east longitude from Peking. It has a river communication with the sea, and is well adapted for commerce.

* Of the five "consular ports" of China, Canton has been noticed on page 430, AMOY is situated on an island of the same name, in the province of Foo-keen, in latitude 24° 32′ north, and longitude 118° east. It has a remarkably fine harbor and bay, capable of affording safe anchorage to one hundred sail, the entrance to which is through a narrow passage, fortified on either side. The population of Amoy exceeds 200,000, the greater portion of whom are occupied in the coasting trade. FOO-CHOO is the capital of the province of Foo-keen, and stands on the banks of the river Min, about 38 miles from the sea, in 26° north latitude, and 119° east longitude. The city lies on a plain, through which the river runs, and ranks among the finest cities in China, having wide thoroughfares, large shops, and spacious public buildings. The population, including the suburbs, is most dense, and is rated at about 700,000. The city of NING-PO lies in 29° 45′ north latitude, and 121° 22′ east longitude; it is situated on the bank of the river Tahee, and in the province of Che-kiang; Ningpo is about twelve miles distant from the sea, being in a westerly direction from the cluster of the Chusan islands. The city is five miles in circumference. The population is about half a million. Ningpo is a place of considerable native trade. SHANG-HAI is the most northerly and also important of the five ports, being connected, by water communication alone, with nearly half of China. It is in the province of Keang-soo, is situate on the right bank of the Woo-sung river, lies in 31° 25′ north latitude, and 120° 32′ east longitude, being distant from Chusan about 100 miles. The city is surrounded by a wall about three miles and a quarter in circuit, which is not fortified in any manner. The city abounds in narrow, filthy streets or alleys, crowded with shops, and people actively engaged in business. The domestic commerce of Shang-hai is considerable, it being not uncommon for 3,000 vessels and junks from all parts of China to be lying at one time in the river opposite to the city. The population of Shang-hai and its immediate suburbs is about 200,000.

INDEPENDENT TARTARY.

Independent Tartary,* or Western Turkestan, is bounded on the north by the territories of Russia in Asia, on the south by those of Persia and Afghanistan, on the east by the Chinese empire, and on the west by the Caspian sea and the river Ural, which forms part of the northern limit of the dominions of Russia in Europe. Its boundaries are very imperfectly defined, and its area can not therefore be accurately estimated; but the region under review may be said to extend through sixteen degrees of latitude, or from 35° to 51° north, and from 50° to 74° east longitude. Its superficial area is 843,600 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—A large portion of this country consists of immense desert plains; the basins of the Oxus or Amoo, and of the Syr or Sihoun, in the south, contain fine, fertile, and well-watered tracts, skirted by lofty mountains, which are intersected by numerous valleys; but not unfrequently a rich plain is found surrounded by a desert and moving sands. The steppes consist principally of an undulating surface, of a brownish yellow color in summer, divided by chains of hills, or gently-sloping eminences. The absence of wood, and the slight elevation of the surface, affords an extensive prospect, of which the characteristics are sterility, uniformity, and silence. A few thorny bushes scarcely break the monotony of these vast wastes, which are crossed by a number of streams generally fordable in summer. The cultivated spots near the towns, or on the banks of rivers, are merely small patches, rendered fertile by constant irrigation. Some of the deserts are of sand, others of thick clay, strewed with flints of different colors, but capable of being cultivated, if fresh water, which is only procurable from wells at a depth of fifty feet, could be more readily obtained.

Mountains.—The Hindu Koosh range, which separates Independent Tartary from Persia and Afghanistan, has the loftiest mountains on the globe, the Kailas rising, it is estimated, to 29,000 or 30,000 feet above the level of the sea. These mountains have an inclined plane toward the plateau, or steppes of Tartary. The Bolor or Beloor Tagh, on the southeast, called by the Chinese the "Azure mountains," and also the "Shining mountains," from the shining quartz of which they are chiefly composed—are precipitous, of great extent, and covered with ever-during snow. Only two passes are known through them, those of Budakshan, and the source of the Syr river. The Asfera, Mussar or Gakehal mountains, running nearly east and west, and forming an irregularly elevated table-land. The only communication between Kokand and Bokhara is by the pass of Khojuend, between the extremity of this range and the river Syr. From this table-land there are several latent ranges, one the Kara-tagh or "Black mountain," runs south and southwest for nearly 400 miles toward the Oxus. The Alatan or Kynder-tau, bounds Kokand, and the vale of the Syr to the northward, and runs 400 miles to the west, until lost in the desert of Aral. It is for the greater part covered perpetually with snow.

Rivers, &c.—The two principal are the Oxus and the Syr. The Oxus has its source in Lake Sirikel, at an altitude of 15,000 feet in the Hindu-koosh mount-

* Tartar is a generic appellation given for six centuries to the nomadic tribes of Northern and Middle Asia, as Scythian was formerly to different erratic nations, whose precise origin was unknown, and as Indian is now to the various races of aborigines on this continent, between whom there is often little affinity in appearance, language, or customs. In conformity to custom, the word Tartary, or Turkestan, is retained to designate a region but little known, comparatively valueless to Europe or Asia. It was during the decline of the Roman empire that swarms of these nomadic tribes began permanently to forsake their own plains, in search of more fertile regions; and the first of these ravagers whose terror and fame reached the frontier of Italy were the Huns, the ancestors of the modern race of Mongols. The first acknowledged sovereign of this vast country was the famous Genghis Khan, in 1206. His empire, by the conquest of China, Persia, and all Central Asia, became one of the most formidable ever established; but it was split into parts in a few reigns. Timour, or Tamerlane, again conquered Persia, again broke the power of the Turks in Asia Minor, 1402, and founded a dynasty in India, which formed the most splendid court in Asia, till the close of the eighteenth century.

ains; after several windings, and a course of 1,100 miles, it falls into the southern part of the sea of Aral. The Oxus receives many tributaries; near Bokhara it is 1,000 yards broad, and when swollen by the melting snow it expands to four miles. The Syr has its principal source in the Beloor or Gakchal mountains, and is joined by many minor streams, and after a course of 800 miles it disembogues into the sea of Aral. It flows for a large part of its extent through a bare, treeless, sandy waste, bounded for several miles on either side by thickets of reeds eighteen feet high, which in winter afford shelter and fuel for the encampments of the Kerghiz; the banks are alternately steep and level. This river was the northern limit of the marches of Alexander the Great. The sea of Aral, 170 miles long by 140 miles broad, is surrounded on the east and northwest by sandy hillocks and clayey plains; on the northeast the banks are thirty toises above the water; on the northwest are the bay and lakes of Koulmaghour; on the west is the chain of Kara-ghoumbet hills, very steep on one side, but with a gentle slope on the other or land side, and giving rise to numerous small streams.

Climate.—The climate of Turkestan is severe, and partakes of the extremes of heat and cold. In the steppes the spring appears suddenly, and passes away rapidly; the summer is dry and burning; the autumn rainy, gloomy, and short; the winter long, dry, and constantly cold. In the more southern regions the air is dry, bracing, and salubrious.

Political Divisions.—Independent Tartary is divided politically into many petty Mohammedan states, subject to despotic chiefs, termed khans, sultans, beys, inaks, alaliks, and behadours. The khan has the power of life and death; the sultans are the relations of the khan, and exercise some influence; the beys are hereditary, if they can maintain their right; the behadours are celebrated for their courage in war, enterprising spirit, and wise counsels. The principal of the states of Tartary are, Turkmania (or Turkestan proper), Bokhara,* Khiva,† Khokand, Khunduz, Budakshan,‡ Hizar, Koolab, Durwaz, Shoognan, and Wukhan. Every race or horde delights in pillage; they associate in sufficient numbers, armed and mounted, to plunder caravans however well-protected. Each able-bodied man having his own horse, large masses of horsemen can be brought into action by the more powerful chiefs, who are generally at war with each other.

Chief Towns.—Bokhara, the capital of Tartary, is a large and wealthy town, with a population estimated at 100,000 to 250,000, within and without the walls. The city is well-built; it abounds in roofed bazars, caravanseres for travellers, mosques, and colleges; of the latter there are eighty, generally built of stone and lime, and containing each from 50 to 300 chambers. There are two pupils to each chamber, and they are supported by the endowed rents of lands and houses belonging to the several colleges, as it is a favorite exercise

* The Bokhara or Balkh division corresponds to the western and larger division of the ancient kingdom of Bactria, is estimated to contain 60,000 square miles, and is a highly diversified region of mountains, hills, glens, valleys, and plains. The Usbecs, who are rigid Soonees of the Mohammedan faith, are the predominating race; the number of people, settled and nomadic, is supposed to be 1,500,000 to 2,000,000; and the military is variously stated at 30,000 to 100,000 men.

† The Khiva khanate is said to extend over an area 150 miles in length by 100 in breadth, for a large part well-cultivated and intersected with canals, constructed with much art for irrigation. Population, 300,000. Khiva is the granary of the wandering Kerghiz and Turcoman hordes. It is 300 miles from Bokhara, the Caspian, and from the frontiers of Persia; and 600 from the Russian lines. The town is surrounded by a ditch, clay wall, and rampart. The khan can bring 40,000 horsemen into the field.

‡ Budakshan, the eastern part of ancient Bactria, is one of the most mountainous countries of the world; it appears to correspond with the province of Bubacene, which was conquered by Alexander the Great, and is represented by Curtius as unsurpassed for gold and precious stones. The chief has 10,000 matchlock men. Of the extent of this region, or of its characteristics, or population of the adjacent divisions of Koondooz, Kokand, the desert of the Karakalpacks, the basin of the Syr, Uratippa, and Yar-i-lak, or of the more northern territories, we know nothing certain. Russia is the only European state that possesses any accurate data of the condition and resources of the whole country; it has been supposed capable of being made a highway for the march of a Russian army from the Caspian, for the invasion of British India. Even if Russia were not vulnerable in Europe, it would be utterly impossible to convey an army, artillery, munitions of war, and provisions across such a country, independent of the hostility of numerous tribes who hate foreign intercourse, and whose plundering propensities no army could resist.

of piety among wealthy Mussulmans to build and endow a college. Samarcand, once the capital of Independent Tartary, is about 112 miles east of Bokhara. When taken by Alexander, it had a wall eight and a half miles in circumference. When besieged by Ghengis Khan, the district had a wall with twelve gates of iron, each a league distant. Timour Beg made it the capital of his short-lived empire, and adorned it with many noble buildings; but its glories passed away, and it became the haunt of the lion and the wolf. Since its occupation by Sheebannee Khan, the founder of the Usbec dynasty, great exertions have been made for its restoration, and it now contains about 60,000 inhabitants, and has some trade. Khiva, capital of the Khiva Khanate, and residence of the khan, is situated in an irrigated and fertile plain near the Oxus. The town is surrounded by a mud wall and wet ditch, and contains, within its suburbs, about 2,000 houses, built (most of them) of mud, the only stone buildings in the town being three mosques, a school, and a caravansery. The population is about 12,000. It is the largest slave mart in Turkestan. Other towns are Kurshee, with a population of 10,000; Balkh (the ancient Bactria), the birthplace of Zoroaster, and the seat of the patriarch of the Magian hierarchy; Fyzabad, Kokan, Marghilan, Tashkend, &c.

Productive Resources.—The vegetable productions, which are the objects of culture in Tartary, do not materially differ from those of Europe. In the southern and milder tracts are raised wheat, barley, and millet; while the northern districts scarcely yield any grain except oats. Horses are the most valuable domestic animals in Tartary.* Camels of both species, and sheep, beeves, and goats, constitute the wealth of the wandering tribes.

Manufactures.—Manufactures can not be said to have any national existence in Tartary, though the Bokharians are distinguished for their fine cotton and silk stuffs, shawls, hats, and other articles of their produce.

Commerce.—Bokhara is a great mart for Central Asia, and numerous fairs are held in the chief places. The imports are mostly woollen cloths, cottons, spices, indigo, tobacco, sugar, and tea. The exports are horses, sheep, furs, cotton, slaves, and gold. The precious metal is brought down by the Oxus and its tributaries, and is obtained in grains, and in leaves or scales, by washing the deposited sand and lime. The quantity obtainable is large, and seems to be capable of great extension. Caravans arrive at Bokhara from Persia, Cabul, Orenburg, and other places. The two annual caravans from Asiatic Russia (Orenburg), consist of 4,000 or 5,000 camels each, and complete the journey in three months. There is a very active and extensive commerce between China and Independent Tartary.

Religion.—Two religions divide Tartary, and are professed with zeal through different portions. All the eastern regions acknowledge the Shaman doctrines, and the supremacy of the Grand Lama; while the countries beyond the Amoo are devoted to the Mussulman creed.

Population.—The population of Independent Tartary is supposed to be about 7,000,000. The Asiatic races, called Tartars by the Russians, are of a light olive or dirty white color, have the nose slightly flattened, cheek bones prominent, little beard on the chin, small eyes, frequently looking inward as those of the Chinese do. Ghengis Khan, at the head of the Mongols, subjugated the Tartars, and incorporated them with his army, who partially adopted the language (Turkish) of the conquered. From this mixture have sprung the Turcoman, Kerghiz or Cossack, and other races.

* The Turcoman and his horse are seldom separated; and not only in the fierce contests of war are the fleetness and strength of his steed, his pride and dependence, but in contests of a very different nature. An unmarried girl, mounted on a fleet horse, is given in marriage to the lover who can overtake her. The power of endurance frequently exhibited by both the horse and his rider, are extraordinary, a Tartar, on a journey, can go one day without drink, and two without food; and his aliment generally is meat nearly raw, cheese, bread, and a fermented liquor made from the milk of mares.

RUSSIA (IN ASIA).

Asiatic Russia includes that portion of the Russian empire termed Siberia and Kamtschatka, and comprises the territory which extends from 50° degrees of north latitude to the Arctic ocean, and from the Uralian mountains, on the confines of Europe, to the northern Pacific ocean. Its extreme length is nearly 4,000 miles, and its breadth over 1,800 miles, comprising a superficial area of 4,000,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—Siberia is generally a flat tract of vast extent, declining imperceptibly toward the Frozen ocean, and rising thence by equally imperceptible degrees toward its southern border, where at last it is lost in the immense mountain ranges which separate the Russian and Chinese empires. The plain seems to consist almost entirely of steppes and marshes, intersected by large sluggish rivers, which roll down a large mass of water to the Arctic ocean. The steppes are extensive plains, somewhat different from each other in nature and aspect. In some places they are like the American prairies, covered with abundance of tall coarse grass; in others the soil is saline, the salt appearing in the form of an efflorescence mixed with the earth, or in ponds and lakes of salt water, but in general they consist of very loose soil, and contain many lakes, because the waters finding no declivity remain stagnant. In some places, particularly in the north and east, the plain is a bog, as level as the sea, covered with moss, which would be totally impassable, were it not that the ice, which never thaws deeper than a few inches, gives a firm underfooting. There are, however, in the south and west, many pasture and arable districts, where considerable quantities of oats, barley, and buckwheat, are raised; there are also large forests. Irkutsk affords good pasturage in the southern districts, especially Krasnojarsk, which yields abundantly corn, flour, beef, horses, fish, and game. Hunting wild animals for their skins is, however, the chief pursuit of the inhabitants of the whole region of Irkutsk, as well as of the scattered inhabitants of Kamtschatka.

Rivers.—The Obi rises near the frontiers of China, and flows with its branches through a great part of Tartary and Siberia, into the Arctic sea. The Irtish rises in China, flows through a vast, and in many parts fertile region, and unites with the Obi in 61° north. The Tobal and Ishim are tributaries of the Irtish. The Yennesei flows out of China, through Siberia, and after a course of 2,500 miles falls into the Arctic sea in 70° north. The Lena has a tortuous course of 2,000 miles, from China to the Arctic sea, in 71° north; it is safely navigable to Yakutzk, the capital of Eastern Siberia. The Amour or Saghalien, which disembogues into the gulf of Tartary, is a noble river, with a course of 1,800 miles.

Climate.—The climate of Siberia is, in every sense, excessive. The winter lasts for nine, or even ten months. The summer heats are short, but sudden and powerful; and the growth of vegetables is almost perceptible. But, though the climate is so severe and unkindly, it is not injurious to health. Storms are frequent in the southern regions, but near the ocean thunder is seldom heard. In the low countries the aurora borealis is a constant phenomenon, and in no country does it exhibit a greater magnificence. The climate of Siberia on the whole is favorable, and the natives, as well as strangers, complain of nothing but the excessive cold.

Productive Resources.—Agriculture in Siberia is extremely limited; a large portion of the soil (as before remarked) being entirely unfitted by nature for this important pursuit. The finest farming district extends along the base of the Altai mountains: here good crops of oats, rye, and barley, are produced;

culture is, however, limited not only by the indolence of the people, and the want of a market, but by the almost exclusive taste of the Tartar inhabitants for pasturage and rearing of horses. The most important productions of Siberia are drawn from its mines. Those of the Urals are of gold, platina, copper, and iron; of which the supply of the last two is very great. The mines of the Altai are of gold, silver, and copper: those mines are worked on behalf of the government by slaves, most of whom are banished convicts. A great variety of minerals are also found. Among the Urals are found diamonds, emeralds, topazes, and rock-salt; and the Altai mountains produce the topaz, the beryl, the onyx, lapis-luzuli, and red garnets.

Commerce.—The commerce of Siberia is confined mostly to two branches; one formed by the exportation of metals, minerals, and furs; and the other a transit trade, consisting of an overland intercourse, carried on from Europe across Siberia with the Chinese empire, and also with the regions on the shores of the Pacific ocean.

Political Divisions.—The area, population, &c., of these wild and cheerless regions are variously stated; but the "Almanack de Gotha," for 1845, classifies the territories, and gives their population as follows:—

Governments.	Area in square miles.	Population.	Governments.	Area in square miles.	Population.
Tobolsk	519,000	685,000	Jakutzk	1,400,000	162,400
Tomsk	30,000	479,000	Ochotsk	170,000	8,000
Omsk	325,000	600,000	Kamtschatka, &c.	84,000	5,000
Yenneisei	945,000	205,000			
Irkutsk	150,000	507,100	Total	3,623,000	2,651,500

Ochotsk and Kamtschatka are joined under the general military chieftanship of Eastern Siberia; Tobolsk, Tomsk, and Omsk, form the military government of Western Siberia.

Tobolsk.—The government of Tobolsk extends along the banks of the Obi, Irtish, and Tobol, and is bounded on the north by the Polar ocean, on the east and southeast by the government of Tomsk, on the south by the Kerghizian steppes, on the southwest by Orenburg, and on the west by Perm, Vologda, and Archangel. The climate is severe: only the south districts, where the soil is chiefly marl and chalk, produce grain; on the north there are vast sandy tracts. At the mouth of the Obi, nothing is to be seen but morasses covered with rushes and dwarf willows; on the borders of the Arctic ocean nothing grows but a low stunted bramble. Tobolsk, the chief town, is situated in the centre of an immense plain, on the left bank of the Irtish, at its junction with the Obi and Tobol. It has 20,000 inhabitants; the houses are of wood, and the streets are paved with the same. The upper part of the town is 223 feet higher than the lower, and the communication is by an ascent of 290 steps. The view from the summit extends over pasture lands, black forests, and wild deserts, on the verge of the horizon. Sibir, the capital of the Tartars while they ruled Siberia, is about ten miles from Tobolsk, and is now in ruins. Tobolsk is the residence of the governor-general of Western Siberia, and the see of an archbishop, who has jurisdiction over all Siberia.

Irkutsk.—Irkutsk comprehends more than half of Siberia; it is bounded on the north by the Polar ocean, on the northeast by Bhering's straits, on the east by the sea of Kamtschatka, and sea of Ochotsk, on the south by Chinese Tartary, and on the west by the government of Tomsk. In 1823 it was divided into four districts, the government of Irkutsk, the province of Jakutsk, the district of Kamtschatka, and the country of Tchoukotsk. In 1820 the population of the whole was estimated at 510,000 Russians, Cossacks, Tungusians, Mongols, and Buriats. Irkutsk is a fine town, with 15,000 inhabitants, including 2,000 soldiers. It contains several churches, an exchange, and public bazars, with a superb saloon in the centre.

Tomsk.—The government of Tomsk contains the countries bordering on the river Yenneisei, and is bounded on the north by the Arctic ocean, on the east by Irkutsk, on the south by Chinese Mongolia, on the southwest by the Kerghizian steppes, and on the west by Tobolsk. It is estimated to contain 500,000 inhabitants. Kiachta, the frontier town between Russia and China, where the trade between the two countries is carried on, is a small town on a river of the same name, distant only about two miles from the Chinese village Maimadshin, and about two miles in circumference. All the wants of the inhabitants of Kiachta are supplied by their trade, and the town ranks as a free port. The commerce is of considerable value to Russia, and increasing annually; many of the furs obtained in Russian America are conveyed—*via* Ochotsk—and, together with Russian and Prussian cloths, exchanged for tea.

Ochotsk.—Ochotsk, which comprises the most eastern districts of Siberia, is a hilly country covered with marshy woods. The climate is so severe that the port of Ochotsk is only open between the months of July and October. The country of the Tschuktsches extends southward from Behring's straits, has a range of mountains running north and south, whose valleys are filled with morasses and small lakes. The inhabitants are fishers and hunters, who live in great poverty. The Kodiaks occupy the country between the Anadir river and the peninsula of Kamtschatka; there are two classes, one nomadic, and the other settled: the former pay no tribute to Russia, and are of predatory habits.

Kamtschatka.—The long peninsula of Kamtschatka extends from 51° to 63° north latitude, and between 155° and 173° east longitude, and is about 800 miles in length, and 97 to 222 in breadth, with an area of 84,000 square miles, and a population of not more than 5,000. The greater portion of this region consists of a chain of volcanic rocks and mountains, and some active volcanoes, which traverse the whole length of the peninsula to its termination in Cape Lopatka. In the interior there are several grassy plains and valleys, and rivers which admit small vessels for a distance of 100 to 150 miles. Numerous lakes exist. The soil is volcanic and stony, and the winter of ten months' duration; the ground, to the depth of twenty inches, is always frozen. Potatoes never ripen, peas only flower; turnips and radishes thrive, and grass grows to a great height. Bears, wolves, sheep, lynxes, foxes, the sea and river otters, are plentiful. The dogs are employed to carry fish, hay, draw water, and perform all the draught required from horses in Europe. There are settlements on the west coast, along the gulf of Ochotsk; and at the seaport of this name, in 59° north—the principal naval station of Siberia—there are about 150 houses, several warehouses, and ship-builders' yards, belonging to the Russo-American Fur Company. Merchandise is sent by land, from Yakutsk, on the Lena. The population is established in villages built in the old Russian style. The Kamtschatkans are distinguished by honesty, a love of truth, and great hospitality. Petro-Paolovsk, or St. Peter and St. Paul, 16° south of Ochotsk, on the east coast of Kamtschatka, is a small but safe port, with 200 fishermen, chiefly engaged in whaling.

History.—Siberia was probably peopled by several wandering tribes, who occasionally settled themselves where food was easily procurable. In the year 1242, the Tartars founded the khanate of Sibir or Tura; in 1563, Ivan II. nominally added Siberia to the dominions of the Russian czars; and in 1587, Tobolsk was founded; in 1581, the Cossack Yermak conquered the Western Siberia, and the Russians continued thenceforth to extend their rule along the Frozen ocean to the eastward and southward, and along the Amour river until they approached the Chinese frontiers, when war ensued between Russia and

China, in 1680, and was terminated by a treaty of peace in 1689, by which Russia restored a large part of its conquests to China, and yielded the navigation of the Amour to the Peking government. The whole of Siberia and Kamtschatka has since remained under the dominion of Russia. Siberia serves as a place of banishment for delinquents, and many prisoners of state have been sent there; oftentimes men of rank and intelligence, who have greatly contributed to civilize and improve those parts of the country to which they have been banished.

JAPAN.

Japan, an empire within itself, consists of a series of four large, and thirty or forty smaller islands in the North Pacific ocean, between the parallels of 31° and 46°, and the meridians 129° and 143° east of Greenwich. The principal islands are those of Niphon, Jesso, Kiusiu or Keosew, and Sikokf. Niphon, the largest, is 700 miles long by 86 broad, in the form of an elbow; part of the Kurile islands belong to Japan, and part to Russia. Part of Saghalien island also belongs to Japan. According to Hassel, the area of Niphon, with the dependent islands of Sado, Oki, Awasi, and Fatsisio, is 110,768 square miles; of Kiusiu, with its dependencies of Firando, and other islets, 28,552 square miles; of Sicoco, or Xicoco, or Sikokf, 17,372 square miles; of Jesso, and the Japanese Kuriles, viz., Koonaschir, Tschikotan, Uroup, and Jtouroup, 63,446 square miles; Saghalien or Karafta, 48,246 square miles. The Bonin islands, 1,827 square miles. Total, 270,211 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—Little is known of the country; the principal islands are deeply indented with secure harbors, and admirably adapted for maritime traffic. Their surface is very uneven, and interspersed with rocky hills. The principal island, Niphon, is traversed for nearly its whole length by a volcanic chain of mountains, and in many parts the peaks are covered with perpetual snow. The rivers flowing from either side of this chain, have a short and rapid course.

Rivers, Lakes, and Springs.—The principal rivers are the Ujingava and Askagava; the former so rapid and wide that a bridge can not be built over it; the latter remarkable for its depth and perpetual fluctuations. The chief lake, Citz, is 100 miles long and 21 wide. A large valley, called the valley of the Upas, is said to exist in the interior, filled with carbonic gas, and covered with the skeletons of numerous wild and tame beasts and birds. The emperor, it is stated, often sent criminals to the valley to bring away a precious gem of inestimable value, and the bones of men also whiten its deadly sides. The bohun upas, which grows in the tropical regions of the East, furnishes a sap exceedingly poisonous, and this story is probably an exaggeration of that fact. Acidulated lakes and thermal springs are common throughout several of the islands.

Climate.—The climate varies extremely from north to south. In Kiusiu, and the southern part of Niphon, the thermometer ranges between 29° and 104° Fahrenheit; 80° being the average of the middle of summer, and 35° of winter. Earthquakes, hurricanes, and storms, are frequent and destructive.

Chief Cities.—Jeddo or Yeddo, the capital of the empire, is situated in the middle of a fine plain, in the province of Musace. It is built in the form of a crescent, and intersected in almost every street by canals, their banks being planted with rows of beautiful trees. The city is not surrounded, as most eastern cities are, by a wall, but has a strong castle to defend it. The river Tongag waters it, and supplies the castle ditch; and, being divided into five streams, has a bridge over each. The public buildings are on a magnificent scale. The

imperial palace is formed by three cinctures, or circular piles of buildings, and enclosing many streets, courts, apartments, pavilions, guard-houses, gates, drawbridges, gardens, canals, &c. In it reside the emperor and his family, the royal domestics, tributary princes and their retinues, the ministers of state, many other officers of government, and a strong garrison. The walls of this magnificent palace are built of freestone, without cement, and the stones prodigiously large. The whole pile was originally covered with gilt tiles, which gave it a very grand and beautiful appearance. Many of the stately apartments are formed and altered at pleasure, by movable screens. The principal apartments are, the hall of attendance, the council-chamber, hall of a thousand mats, &c. The city is under the rule of two governors, who rule a year each. The next largest city is Meaco. It is also a royal city, and is situated on a lake near the middle of the island of Niphon, and surrounded by mountains, which give a remarkable and delightful prospect to the whole; the circumjacent country between the city and the mountains is covered with temples, sepulchres, &c., and is embellished with a variety of orchards, groves, cascades, and purling streams. Three considerable rivers water this fertile plain, and unite their streams in the centre of the city, where a magnificent stone bridge facilitates the communication between the different parts of the city. A strong castle defends the town; it is six hundred yards in length, has a tower in the centre, and is surrounded by two ditches, the one dry, the other full of water. This splendid city is twenty miles long and nine wide within the suburbs, which are as well populated as the city. The number of the inhabitants of the city proper is supposed to be about 530,000. The universities, colleges, temples, &c., are almost incredible in number and magnificence. It contains twelve capital or principal streets, in the centre of which are the royal palaces, superbly built of marble, and adorned with gardens, orchards, pavilions, terraces, groves, &c. The next principal town is Ozeaco. It is deemed the chief seaport, is very populous, and has an army of 80,000 men always ready at the disposal and command of the emperor. It is nearly fifteen miles in circumference. Nangasaki, on the island of Kiusiu, is the Japanese naval depôt; but as they have little use for a navy, their vessels are only in the rough material, stored away for emergencies. The kokansa or prison is here (which name means, in the Japanese, hell); it has one hundred dungeons and cages. Nara, the ancient residence of the emperors, and consequently much venerated, is situated near Meaco, and is a very flourishing place, in consequence of its numerous temples, which attract devotees. Matsmai, with 50,000 inhabitants, lies on a bay at the southwest point of the island of Jesso. Its harbor is constantly filled with merchant vessels, and it has a flourishing trade. Simonoseki is a seaport on the southwestern extremity of Niphon, on the strait which divides, at this port, Niphon from Kiusiu. The history of these few cities gives a fair outline of the whole empire. The private dwellings of the Japanese are small but neat, and ornamented with gardens; in this they excel, as they are the best of horticulturists. A few feet of ground are turned to the best advantage, as the Japanese understand perfectly the art of dwarfing plants, trees, fruits, and flowers, They use neither tables, bedsteads, nor chairs; but sit, eat, and sleep, like most eastern nations, on mats.

Productive Resources.—The soil of Japan, though not naturally fertile, has been so much improved as to be rendered extremely productive. Few plants, except on the hills, are found in a natural state; and the face of the country, even up the sides of the mountains, is most diligently cultivated. In the southern districts rice is raised in large quantities, and forms the usual food of the inhabitants. Wheat is held in little estimation; but barley, buckwheat, beans, potatoes, melons, &c., are raised in abundance. Ginger and pepper are the principal spice-plants; cotton and tobacco are also grown; next to rice, how-

ever, tea is the grand object of cultivation. The natural forests produce oaks, firs, and cypresses, and the cedars are the finest in the world: there is also the gum-varnish tree, the camphor-laurel, and many other of great value. The great source of opulence of the Japanese, however, are their mines of gold and silver, but they have no antimony, calamine, sal-ammoniac, borax, or cinnebar (quicksilver). These articles are in demand, and bring a high price. Birds, and every kind of duck and poultry, are plenty.

Manufactures.—The industry of the Japanese will bear to be compared with that of the Hindus, or even Chinese. The artificers in copper, iron, and steel, have a high character, and the swords of Japan rank second only to those made in Khorassan. Telescopes, thermometers, watches and clocks,* of good quality, are constructed at Nangasaki. Glass is made; but the natives are not acquainted with the art of glass-blowing. Printing was introduced in the thirteenth century, and is conducted, as in China, by means of wooden blocks; engravings are also made, but in a very clumsy manner. Silk and cotton fabrics, of good quality, are manufactured in quantities almost sufficient for the consumption of the population. Porcelain, more highly esteemed even than that of China, is formed from two peculiar kinds of earth, called *kaslin* and *petunsee*. The art of lacquering furniture with gold, silver, and various pigments, the secret of which was till lately almost exclusively confined to the Japanese, and hence called "japanning," is practised with great success. For their superiority in this art they are indebted to the gum of a tree called *arusi*.

Commerce.—The trade of the Japanese is, at present, under great restrictions, as they only trade with the Chinese and Dutch. The latter have always fostered, cherished, and increased the prejudices of the Japanese against all other nations, particularly the French, English, and Portuguese. Their exports are raw and manufactured silks, iron, steel, artificial metals, furs, teas (finer than the Chinese), Japan-ware, gold, silver, copper, gums, medicinal herbs, roots, diamonds, pearl, coral, shells, ambergris, &c. Whatever goods the Japanese want they pay for in gold and silver.

Education.—The Japanese are said to excel in literature. Their alphabet has forty-eight letters, which are written in five different forms, one of which is used exclusively by males, and another by females. They study medicine and astronomy; history, poetry, and several of the natural sciences, are cultivated, and there is a prevalent taste for drawing, engraving, and music.

Religion.—There are two systems of religion in Japan. The one resembles the mythology of ancient Greece and Rome, called Sinto, consisting of the belief of one Supreme Being, with a number of inferior deities; the other, Budso imported from Malabar, is nearly the same with that of Buddha—the transmigration of souls being its leading trait. The Portuguese, the first Europeans who discovered this country, converted many of the natives to the Christian faith. But the conduct of these settlers excited, at length, so strong a prejudice against their religion, that a massacre took place in 1590, in which 20,000 Christians are said to have perished; and in 1638 they were nearly exterminated.

Population.—The population of Japan is variously estimated. Klaproth puts it as high as 40,000,000; others at 50,000,000; while the estimates of Dr. Bridgeman and others, which are perhaps the most reliable, place it at 25.000,000. The Japanese seem, in personal appearance, to be an altered and improved variety of the Mongols and Chinese. Their eyes are small, pointed, oblong, sunk in the head, with a deep furrow made by the eyelids; they have almost the appearance of being pink-eyed. Their heads are large and neck short;

* Mr. Megler, in his "Sketches of Japan," states that he saw a clock made there in 1827, as a present for the emperor, which was five feet long, and three feet high; it exhibited a varied landscape and a golden sun. On the striking of the hour a bird clapped its wings, a mouse issued from a cave and climbed a mountain, and a tortoise moved to point the hour on the dial.

their hair is black, thick, and shining from the use of oil. They are, however, robust, well-made, active, and easy in their motions. Their complexion yellow, and passing into brown, appears to be produced by the climate; since ladies, who are constantly protected by the heat of the sun, are as fair as the ladies in Europe. The Japanese are described as valiant, polite, industrious, and virtuous. . Honor is considered so essential to the character of a Japanese gentleman (who always wears two swords), that if insulted, he presents a sword to his insulter, and then rips up his own bowels; a proceeding which, as a point of honor, his antagonist is bound to imitate. Ladies take the head of the table in Japan, and society, though fettered by formalities, is free from oriental exclusiveness. Almost the first accomplishment learned by the Japanese is the art and grace of suicide; the child in the nursery stabs itself with its finger or stick, and falls back in imitative death; the lover cuts out his intestines before his obdurate mistress, and the latter pours out her heart's blood in the face of her faithless lover; the criminal executes himself; and, in fact, the whole nation, from early youth, revels in the luxury of suicide. They allow polygamy, and they often strangle their female children, but never the males. The nobility extract the two front teeth, and supply them with two of gold.

Government.—This is vested in a celestial emperor or high priest (Mikado), and a temporal sovereign (Seogun), who administers the executive, assisted by a council of five members and a senate, who have cognizance of the boards or departments of business. There are local governors in the different islands or provinces. There are eight provinces, 68 departments, 622 districts, and excellent municipal institutions. Taxation is light, internal commerce very active; there is an extensive gold coinage, and the purest copper known.

History.—The origin of the Japanese is involved in mystery. The Chinese chronicles, B. C. 100, record embassies from Japan, with which country free friendly intercourse subsisted until A. D. 600. The occupation of China by the Mongols led to war with Japan. From 1279 to 1286 the Mongol emperor, Kublia Khan, despatched four embassies to Japan, but failing to be received on his own terms, he sent an army of 100,000 men to conquer them, the greater part of whom were destroyed by a storm. Active hostilities continued between the two countries for many years, and the Japanese ravaged the coast of China, and penetrated the interior as far as Canton. They were subsequently discomfited and driven off. Since this period no open warfare has been waged between the two empires. Marco Polo was the first to make known to Europeans the existence of a country called by him Zipangu, but since proved to be identical with Japan. In 1542, Mendez-Pinto, a Portuguese, was cast by storm on these shores, and a Portuguese settlement from Malacca was soon after made at Nagasaki, the commercial relations of which, with the inhabitants, were very considerable and highly lucrative to the settlers, till the interference, in 1585, of Jesuit missionaries with the religious profession of the inhabitants, led to the persecution and final expulsion of the traders. The Dutch soon afterward (in 1600), with great difficulty, prevailed on the Japanese to allow them to trade on condition of not interfering with the national religion; but the vexatious and harassing regulations by which the trade is obstructed, and the very limited extent allowed to it, make it a matter of question how far the factory should be kept up by the Dutch government. The Russians tried, some years ago, to establish commercial relations with Japan; but their proposals were declined, and the envoys were ordered not to return on pain of death. An expedition was fitted out in the winter of 1852–'53, by the United States government, for the purpose of endeavoring to prevail on the emperor of Japan to open his ports to the commerce of this country, and enter into treaty relations with us for the protection of our citizens. The internal history of Japan is almost unknown; and the statements that have reached us are too loose to be admitted as authentic history.

AFRICA
Scale of miles
70 280 490 1000
SAHARA OR GREAT DESERT
Tropic of Cancer
Equator
Tropic of Capricorn
Mountains of the Moon
Cameroon Mts.
Oasis of Fezzan
Oasis of Thuat
Mourzouk
Sockna
FEZZAN
Timbuctoo
Jenne
Sego
Sansanding
Sackatoo
Koulkawa
L. Tchad
Wara
Cobbe
DARFUR
BERGOO
NEW DONGOLA
NUBIA
Shendi
Merawih
Dongola
Nile R.
Kong Mts.
Kong
SOUDAN
Nyffe
Loggun
Kona
ABYSSINIA
GONDAR
Tacazze R.
Abai R.
Tigre
Tribes of Galla
ADEL
BERBERA
UPPER GUINEA
Comassie
Accra
Fantee
Ashantee
Dahomy
Benin
Bonny
Calabar
Gaboon
C. Palmas
Ivory Coast
Slave Coast
GULF OF GUINEA
LOWER GUINEA
Congo R.
Mayombe
Loango
Malimba
St. Salvador
UNEXPLORED
Wandering
REGION
Bushmen
St. Paul de Loanda
Coanza R.
Benguela
St. Felipe de
Massanedes
Cazembe
Pindo
Cubango
Quilimane
Mozambique
ZANGUEBAR
Melinde
Mombaza
Zanzibar
Brava
Magadoxo
Aroa
Quiloa
Comoro Is.
Mozambique
MADAGASCAR
Tamatave
Mauritius
Bourbon
Monazard
Port Dauphin
C. St. Mary
Inhambane
Sofala
Sabia
Manica
Mashow
Kurreechanee
Hottentots
Orange R.
Walwisch B.
St. Helena
C. Frio
Ascension I.
Fernambuco
Bahia or St. Salvador
C. St. Roque
Maranham
Rio Janeiro
Cape Town
C. of Good Hope
CAPE COLONY
Graaf von Town
Port Natal
Natal
Zoolaland
Sofala
Acre
Jerusalem
Isthmus of Suez
Mecca
Muscat
Strait of Ormus
Persian G.
Surat
Bombay
Goa
Saana
ARABIAN SEA
Socotra
Babelmandel
Ceylon
C. Comorin
Maldivia Is.
Amirante Is.
Madrid Is.
Mogadore
Canary Is.
Cape Verd Is.
Cape Verd
Bathurst
Portuguese Settlements
St. Louis
Senegal R.
Senegambia
Sierra Leone
Free Town
Gambia R.
Niger R.
Nile R.
Red Sea
Mediterranean Sea
Europe
Sicily
Corsica
Sardinia
Malta
Tripoli
Tunis
Algiers
Fez
Morocco
Barbary
Gibraltar
Strait of Gibraltar
Madeira Is.
Azores Is.
AMERICA
SOUTH
INDIAN OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
60 40 20 0 20 40 60 80
60 50 40 Lon. W. from Greenwich 10 0 10 30 40 Lon. E. from Greenwich 70 80 90
30 20 10 0 10 20 30

AFRICA.

The continent of Africa has well-defined limits, being, with the exception of the narrow, low, sandy isthmus of Suez, surrounded on all sides by water. On the north the Mediterranean separates it from Europe, on the northeast the Red sea and part of the Arabian sea divide it from Asia, on the east it is bounded by the Indian ocean, on the south by the Great Southern ocean, and on the west and northwest by the Atlantic. It extends from Cape Bon, in the Mediterranean near Sicily, in 37° 4′ north latitude, to the Cape of Good Hope, in the Southern ocean, in 34° 24′ south latitude; thus measuring in length about 72° from north to south, that is, 4,140 geographical, or 4,760 English miles. The breadth from east to west is unequal. From Cape Guardafui, near the entrance of the Red sea, to Cape de Verde on the Atlantic near the river Gambia, the distance from east to west is about 4,600 miles; about five degrees north of the equator the breadth of the west coast suddenly contracts, leaving about 2,500 miles between Fernando Po on the west and Magadoxo on the east coast. In two undulating lines the shores gradually diminish to a point at the Cape of Good Hope. The area is variously estimated. By Malte Brun at 13,430,000 square miles; by Ukert at 11,961,675; and by Gräberg at nearly the same extent.

Physical Aspect.—The whole of Africa south of the equator, and north of it up to 10° latitude, seems to constitute an extensive table-land, fringed in most parts by a comparatively narrow strip of low land along the sea. North of this table-land, between 10° and 30° north latitude, extends an immense but low plain, the greater part of which is occupied by the Great desert, or desert of Sahara. This vast sandy waste is almost uninterrupted for a distance of 2,600 miles from east to west, with a breadth of 750 miles. There the sun burns with an intensity fatal to animal and vegetable life; the winds scorch like a fiery furnace-blast, and billows of sands are tossed as the waves of a tempestuous sea, and suffocate and bury whole armies and caravans. Addison's description of such a scene in expressed with peculiar force and beauty—

> "Lo! where our wide Numidian wastes extend,
> Sudden the impetuous hurricanes descend,
> Which through the air in circling eddies play,
> Tear up the sands, and sweep whole plains away:
> The helpless traveller, with wild surprise,
> Sees the dry desert all around him rise,
> And, smothered in the dusty whirlwind, dies."

A comparatively narrow tract of mountainous country, including Atlas and its dependencies, separates the desert from the Mediterranean. On the east the desert does not reach the Red sea; being separated from it by the mountains of Abyssinia, and the rocky countries extending from them northward along the Red sea to the shores of the Mediterranean. In its general configuration Africa is much less indented with bays or inlets, and has a more regular outline, than Europe, Asia, or America.

Mountains.—The first chain known is that included under the general term of "Atlas," which extends along the northern coast, between the parallels of 28° and 37°. The greatest elevation is between Fez and Morocco, where the altitude is 13,200 feet above the sea. There are five or six ranges rising one behind another in successive terraces, with occasional isolated groups. Sailing along the Mediterranean coast, from Gibraltar toward Algiers, in the month of March, the view of these snowy peaks and ridges, gilded with sunbeams, and forming glittering pyramids, is exceedingly magnificent. The Egyptian mountains of Magarah and Mocattham are of a much less elevation than the Atlas

range, and are a branch of the Lybian chain which runs along the west bank of the Nile to the Cataracts, when the country gradually ascends toward Abyssinia, which is an Alpine district, whose mountains, even in the torrid zone, are covered with perpetual snow. On the eastern coast there appears to be a continuous chain of mountains running south at a greater or lesser distance from the coast, and terminating in Table mountain, at the extremity of South Africa. This range is continued at intervals from the Cape of Good Hope along the west coast of Africa to the northward; and opposite the island of Fernando Po is 17,000 feet high at a distance of twenty miles from the coast. They are always covered with snow, and extend to Sierra Leone, and probably stretch along the whole western coast to the Atlas chain at Morocco. Whether these coast chains running north and south are connected with other chains running east and west has never been ascertained. Of the alleged chain, called the "Mountains of the Moon," we know nothing certain. The dip of the land on the east coast and narrower part of the continent appears to be from north to south; but north of the 10th parallel, and east of 10° on the meridian, the dip appears to be from south to north.

Rivers and Lakes.—The Nile, the Niger or Quorra, the Senegal, the Gambia, the Gaboon, the Congo, the Orange, the Quilimane, and the Haines rivers, are the chief streams of which we have any definite and accredited account. The Nile rises in Abyssinia, flows northward nearly parallel to the Red sea, and falls into the Mediterranean at Rosetta and Damietta. The Nile is supposed to have a course of 3,600 miles. Of its seven ancient mouths two only are now of any importance, that of Rosetta, the principal, and that of Damietta.* The Niger has its source in the Kong mountains, in the meridian of 9° west of Greenwich, and after a southeast course of 1,660 miles it falls into the Atlantic at Cape Formosa, on the west coast of Africa. Its true African name is Quorra. Many valuable lives have been lost in ascertaining, first the origin of the river, and next its course and descent to the ocean. The Senegal rises in the Kong mountains, has a course of 800 miles, and disembogues into the Atlantic in 16° 5′ north latitude. At 140 miles from the sea it is a noble river, bordered with picturesque heights clothed in rich varied foliage, and but for the unhealthiness of the climate and the swarms of crocodiles would afford a pleasing navigation. The Gambia rises in the mountains of Badet, in 10° 36′ north, and has a course of 600 miles to the Atlantic. It is seven leagues in breadth at its embouchure, is navigable at 120 leagues from the sea by vessels of 150 tons burden, and for half that distance by large ships-of-war. The Congo is little known. It is supposed to rise in Central Africa, has a long course, receives several large tributaries, and at its mouth, in 6° 30′ south latitude, is about three miles wide, with a main depth of forty fathoms, and an average flow of about four and a half miles per hour. The Orange river, which forms the northwest boundary of the British territory at the Cape of Good Hope, has an irregular course of 700 miles, and in the dry season does not reach the ocean, but forms in several places a chain of ponds. The Quilimane, the chief river on the southeast African coast, has been ascended as far as Tete, about 250 miles. It is probably an extensive stream. There is a large river near Mombas, for the volume of fresh water discharged into the ocean changes its color for ten miles from the land. The Haines river, recently discovered near the equator on the northeast coast, has first a northerly and then a northwesterly

* Bayard Taylor, who explored the Nile as far as latitude 12° north, speaking of the Nile, says, that at Kartoum, 2,000 miles from its mouth, in latitude 15° 40′ where the two branches of the Nile unite, the current is as broad, strong, and deep, as at Cairo. The Blue Nile rises near latitude 11°, in the mountains of Godjam, on the southwest portion of Abyssinia, whence it flows northward into the great lake of Dembea, thence southeast to latitude 8°, curves again to the northeast until it unites with the White Nile. Its entire length is about 800 miles. The White or true Nile has been ascended to latitude 4°, where its tide is still full and strong, so as to leave no doubt that its source is beyond the equator. The length of the Nile, when its source shall be found, will not be less than 4,000 miles. The waters of the White Nile are of a light brown, or muddy color; those of the Blue Nile, of a dark bluish-green.

course toward Abyssinia. Recent observation has afforded most apparent indications of the existence of a great river on the east coast of Africa, navigable to a considerable extent into the unknown interior. But one lake of large extent is yet positively known. It is called the Tchad, and lies between the 13th and 15th parallels; its extent is not known. It receives several rivers, abounds with fish, and the country around is rich in tropical vegetation. The Congo is said to have its source in a large lake in about 5° north. The Debo or Dibbie lake is west of the Tchad, near Timbuctoo; and Dembea, 61 miles long, is in Abyssinia. A lake, 300 miles in length and 45 in breadth, is said to exist on the eastern coast about 10° south latitude.

Islands.—Below the straits of Gibraltar are the Madeira islands (see page 259), two in number, belonging to Portugal; and below them the Canary islands (see page 260), or Fortunatæ Insulæ of the ancients, belonging to Spain, seven of which are inhabited. The chief of the Canary islands is Teneriffe, where is the celebrated mountain called the Pike (or Peak) of Teneriffe, which is an almost extinct volcano, more than 12,000 feet above the level of the sea. Below the Canaries are the Cape de Verde islands (see page 261), ten in number, lying off Cape de Verde, and belonging to the Portuguese, the chief of which is St. Jago. North of Congo is the island of St. Thomas, belonging to the Portuguese, and considerably to the southwest of it the island of Ascension; below which, to the southeast, is the small island of St. Helena, memorable for the confinement of Napoleon, belonging to the English, where the homeward-bound East-Indiamen touch for refreshments.* Off the coast of Mozambique is the island of Madagascar,† which is one of the largest in the world, being 840 miles long, and 240 miles broad. To the northeast of Madagascar

* This celebrated island lies in latitude 15° 15′ south, and longitude 5° 49′ west. It is about ten miles long by six broad. Its population is about 5,000, of whom about one half are whites. It appears from a distance like the summit of a lofty submarine mountain, rising abruptly from the shore in rugged and almost perpendicular cliffs, varying from 300 to 1,500 feet in height, diversified in a few places with deep narrow ravines, descending to the sea, and forming difficult landing-places for the fishermen. In the largest of these, toward the northwest, is Jamestown, the capital and port of the island. The interior is a plateau, about 1500 feet above the sea, divided into two unequal parts by a ridge of mountains rising about 500 feet above the plain, and 2,000 feet above the sea: the highest summit of this ridge, called Diana's Peak, is 2,703 feet in height. Longwood, the residence of Napoleon, stands on the plateau, in the middle of an extensive park. When first occupied by the ex-emperor, it was of very limited dimensions; but some additions were subsequently made to it. After Napoleon's death, the house was for some time uninhabited. Latterly, it has been converted into a kind of farming establishment; and very recently, the room in which the conqueror of Austerlitz breathed his last was occupied as a carthouse and stable. St. Helena was discovered on the 21st of May (St Helena's day), 1502, by Juan de Noya, a Portuguese; but no establishment was formed, nor was the island inhabited, till the Dutch became its masters in the middle of the 16th century. Captain Munden, in 1673, took it from the Dutch; and it was soon afterward granted by Charles II. to the East India Company, who, with the exception of the period of Napoleon's imprisonment, held the proprietorship down to 1834, when it was restored to the English government. The sending of Napoleon to St. Helena, and his treatment while there, constitute one of the most discreditable chapters in the history of modern royalty. Napoleon arrived at St. Helena, October 13, 1815, and there he expired on the 5th of May, 1821. His remains, after having been deposited for nineteen years in an humble grave, near his prison-house, were, in 1840, conveyed with great pomp and ceremony to France, where, agreeably to the wish expressed in his last will, they now repose in the Hotel des Invalides, in Paris.

† Madagascar is separated from the east coast of Africa by the Mozambique channel, which has a breadth, varying from 100 to 150 leagues, and is easily navigable. When the island became known to Europeans is not accurately known; it is said to have been discovered in 1505–'06, by a French navigator named De Gonville; it was shortly after visited by Tristan d'Acunha. But the Moors, Arabs, and eastern nations had long known the island, and Marco Polo, whose travels were published in the 13th century, mentions it under the name of Magaster. A mountain chain, with collateral branches, passes from north to south throughout the island, and appears to be most elevated toward the northern and central part, where an extensive land, with a fertile soil and delightful climate, contains the governing classes of Madagascar. The shore all round the island, except to the northward, is low, swampy, and unhealthy; it then rises sometimes suddenly, and within twenty to thirty miles of the coast, to a considerable altitude, forming successive terraces, covered with gigantic forests, abounding in rivers which rush impetuously toward the ocean, and diversified with lakes, some of considerable extent, dotted with islets, remarkable for their natural beauty. Above these terraces and the table-land rise the mountains of Ankaratro, Angavo, and other mountains, to a height of from 10,000 to 12,000 feet above the sea. Volcanic agency is manifest throughout the island. Its harbors are numerous. St. Augustine's, Bombetok, Majambo, Nareenda, Passandava, and other places on the west coast, are extensive havens. On the east coast, Antongil bay and Tamatave are the principal. The population, formerly very numerous, is now about 5,000,000; divided into numerous clans or tribes, but chiefly divisible into two, the olive and straight-haired, and the dark and woolly-headed race. The religion of both is deeply superstitious, and Christian missionaries have as yet made little progress, except in the cultivation of the useful arts. Among its products cattle and sheep are numerous. Thousands of bullocks are purchased at a dollar each, and the dried flesh exported to Havana and other places. Cotton and flax of excellent quality are cultivated. Metals abound, and gold is almost everywhere obtainable. There are no European settlements on the islands; the French have several times endeavored to obtain a footing, but the Malagach have always said, "Trade with us as friends, but settle on our territories and we are your enemies to the death." Its capital is Tananarivo, a place of about 12,000 inhabitants.

are the Seychelles.* Socotra, a large island to the eastward of Cape Guardafui, eighty by twenty miles in extent, is but little known; it appears to be a mass of lofty primitive rock, with narrow ridges and steep valleys, the whole surrounded by a low plain, extending from the coast. East of Madagascar are the islands Mauritius† or isle of France, and Bourbon.‡ Midway between the north point of Madagascar and the eastern coast of Africa are the Comoro islands, consisting of Comoro, Johanna, Mohilla, and Mayotta. They are of varied height, evidently volcanic, covered with vegetation, and peopled with a semi-Arabian race. The smaller African islands on the coast of the Red sea, are not worth particular notice.

Climate.—The climate of Africa necessarily varies according to distance from the equator, degree of elevation, and other causes; but, in general, the characteristics of the temperature are extreme heat and dryness, except in the immediate vicinity of great rivers. The climate of the British territories at the Cape of Good Hope is one of the finest in the world, and remarkably conducive to health and longevity. In the deltas of rivers, such as the Niger, Gambia, &c., where there are extensive marshes, and vast quantities of vegetable matter in a state of decay, acted on by the unbroken rays of a nearly-vertical sun, the most deadly poisons are produced, which prove speedily fatal to human life. In former ages the climate of Carthage and Egypt, and other places on the Mediterranean shores, must have been favorable to the development of physical and intellectual power. The dangerous season in tropical Africa, where there is vegetation, is immediately after the rains, when the solar heat draws the pernicious miasm from the earth.

Animal Kingdom.—The lion, tiger, panther, leopard, hyena, elephant, rhinoceros, hippopotamus, giraffe, zebra, camel, crocodile, orang-outang, and monkey, are found throughout the whole continent. The lion hunts his prey from the Cape of Good Hope to Algiers, from Morocco to the Nile. The elephant is found principally in southeastern and southwestern Africa. Hippopotami are numerous on the coasts adjacent to the Mozambique channel. The giraffe or

* These islands, lying between 4° and 5° south latitude, were explored by the French in 1743, and occupied from the Isle of France: on the capitulation of that island to the English arms, in 1810, they were permanently occupied by that government. They are fifteen in number, and contain 50,000 acres; of which Mahe, the largest, comprises 30,000. They rest upon a coral bank, but are lofty, composed of granite, and covered with verdure. The scenery among the islands is very romantic, the climate pure and warm. There are many excellent harbors, and the sea is ever tranquil, tornadoes being unknown. The soil produces sugar, coffee, nutmegs, and other spices. The inhabitants, chiefly French, with their *ci-devant* slaves, lead a peaceful life Mahe, the chief town, is picturesquely situated.

† This island is of an elliptical form, 40 miles from north to south, and 32 miles from east to west, with an area of 676 square miles. The island was discovered in 1507, by Mascarenhas, a Portuguese navigator. In 1598 the Dutch landed, took possession of the uninhabited isle, and named it Mauritius, in honor of the then prince of Orange. In 1712 it was abandoned by the Hollanders, and in 1721 formally occupied by the French, who called it Isle de France. They made great improvements, and fortified the place so well, that in time of war Port Louis, the capital, became the stronghold of privateers, who greatly molested the British East Indiamen. The marquis Wellesley, when governor-general of India in 1800, projected and fitted out an expedition for the capture of the island. The measure was delayed till 1810, when it was acquired by conquest, and has since remained a portion of the British empire. The physical aspect of this island is exceedingly picturesque. The land rises from the coast to the middle of the island, and chains of mountains intersect it in various radii from the centre to the shore. The principal elevations are from 2,000 to 3,000 feet high, and in the interior are several small plateaus. From these and from the mountain ranges numerous streams flow toward the sea, and irrigate and adorn the country. Port Louis, the seat of government, is a well-laid-out town, situated in a plain encompassed by a chain of lofty mountains, except on the northwest side, which is bounded by the sea. Formidable batteries command the entrance of the port. The appearance of the island indicates that it was at one period an immense crater, whose fires having been exhausted fell in, perhaps from an earthquake, leaving its firmly-supported sides standing. The soil is very rich, in some places a black vegetable mould, in others a bed of solid clay or quaking earth, into which a stake of ten feet in length may be thrust, without meeting any resistance. The climate is salubrious, and on the highlands cool throughout the year. The population, of about 180,000, is divided into several classes—the old French inhabitants, the English, the African and Madagascar blacks (formerly slaves), and the Coolies, who have migrated from British India as laborers. Within the last few years the population has largely increased, owing to the great stimulus given to the cultivation of sugar, which is the staple product. The quantity produced annually is about 80,000,000 pounds.

‡ Bourbon or Mascarenha, to the southwest of Mauritius, is 60 miles long by 45 miles broad; its capital is St. Denis. The island was discovered in 1505, by Pedro de Mascarenhas; in 1649 occupied by the French; in 1810 captured by the British, and at the peace in 1815 restored to France, in whose possession it remains. The scenery is very grand, consisting of lofty mountains and fertile valleys. The island is supposed to have been formed by a great volcanic eruption; there is an extensive crater, which occasionally sends forth flames and ashes. The soil is very productive, and yields largely sugar, coffee, &c., by which a considerable trade is carried on with France. Population, about 120,000, of whom probably 20,000 are whites, and 60,000 negroes.

cameleopard is found on the Orange river, at the Cape of Good Hope, in Nubia and other places further north. The crocodile is to be found everywhere. There are 642 species of birds known in Africa, of which number 500 are peculiar to this continent. Serpents and snakes abound, and the boa-constrictor is met with in the more northern and in the tropical regions. Insects of every description are very numerous.

Vegetable Kingdom.—Wheat, barley, rice, cotton, tobacco, maize, millet, and the various fruits and vegetables of the tropical and temperate zones, flourish luxuriantly in the localities respectively adapted for their cultivation.

Political Divisions.—The following are the principal divisions of Africa, with their respective areas in square miles, populations, chief towns, &c.

Divisions.	Area in square miles.	Population.	Chief Towns.	Population.
Egypt	180,000	2,000,000	Cairo	250,000
Nubia	300,000	500,000	Dongola	5,000
Abyssinia	300,000	3,000,000	Gondar	6,000
Tunis	150,000	1,800,000	Tunis	130,000
Algiers	40,000	1,500,000	Algiers	50,000
Tripoli	100,000	1,500,000	Tripoli	25,000
Morocco	300,000	8,000,000	Morocco	30,000
Senegambia	350,000	7,000,000	Teembo	7,000
Guinea	280,000	5,500,000		
Liberia	16,000	300,000	Monrovia*	3,000
Soudan	1,850,000	12,000,000	Sackatoo	80,000
Lower Guinea	260,000	4,500,000	San Salvador	20,000
Eastern Africa	1,800,000	3,000,000	Mozambique	5,000
South Africa	500,000	1,200,000	Cape-Town	25,000
Unexplored Interior	3,130,000	Unknown		
Great Desert	2,000,000	3,000,000	Mourzouk	5,000
Island of Madagascar	200,000	5,000,000	Tananarivo	12,000
Other Islands	100,000	1,000,000		
Total	11,856,000	60,800,000		

Commerce.—Africa is rich in various products; even the limited portion with which we are acquainted carries on a considerable trade, and but for the accursed traffic in man during the last two centuries, which has set nation against nation, tribe against tribe, and made the kidnapping and sale of our fellow-creatures the most lucrative of pursuits, the mercantile intercourse with Africa would now have been considerably augmented. Gold-dust abounds on the western and eastern coasts of Africa; at Sofala and other places it is abundantly offered in exchange for beads, by negroes almost in a state of nudity. Ivory is obtainable in every direction. Various gums, spices, drugs and dyes, teak, timber, cotton, rice, skins, oils, and fruits, form large exportable staples from the shores of Eastern and Western Africa. Cotton-cloths, blankets, hardware, beads, rum, muskets, gunpowder and shot, and instruments of war, are sent in exchange from the United States, England, and France.

Religion and Civilization.—Whatever may be the condition of the unknown interior, African civilization on the coast is at a very low point. Wherever the Arabs and Moors have settled there has been some improvements, and the image-worship of the negroes has been, to some extent, supplanted by Islamism. Christianity is said to have been extensively diffused in Africa during the second century of our era; but throughout Egypt and Abyssinia the crescent supplanted the cross. A new element, however, has now been introduced as a civilizing agent into the social life of Africa. The colonies and missionary stations of England and the United States have already become as so many centres, from which the elements of civilization diverge, and spread from the south and the west those blessings, which are being enjoyed by the respective nations to which they belong. With regard to Liberia, the influence of the social position of that republic must act energetically, the people being of the same origin and lineage as those over whom its institutions are intended to be developed.

* So named in honor of James Monroe, President of the United States at the time of the establishment of the colony.

EGYPT.

This celebrated region, famed in both ancient and modern times, is vaguely defined by geographers, and has had its limits frequently altered by conquest. It is bounded north by the Mediterranean, east by Arabia, the gulf of Suez, and the Red sea, south by Nubia, and west by the deserts of Libya, &c. It lies between the parallels of 23° and 32° north latitude, and is in length about 530, and in breadth 280 miles. The superficial area is variously estimated from 140,000 to 200,000 square miles. The cultivable surface is less than 20,000 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—Lower Egypt is flat, and much intersected by branches of the Nile. Upper Egypt is more elevated; the highlands range from Cairo, along the Nile toward the south, and detached ridges appear scattered over the country. In Central Egypt the hills are chiefly composed of sandstone; in Upper Egypt, of sienite or oriental granite, forming lofty walls, with rugged banks, through which the Nile appears to force a passage. The oases, or green spots, with villages in the midst of deserts, are situated principally in Upper Egypt. The great oasis is nine miles long by two broad, and contains about 8,000 people, who cultivate date-trees, rice, and wheat. The soil is a sandy clay; tepid mineral springs are numerous, and rock-salt is found in large blocks. The ruins of the once celebrated temple of Jupiter Ammon is in this oasis. The coast is uniformly low, and so unvarying in is formation, that an approach to it is exceedingly difficult. The isthmus of Suez consists of a low-lying land, composed of shell-limestone rocks mixed with strata of silicious limestone, and partly covered with sand or salt marshes. The surface is scarcely varied by an undulation, but in the middle of its breadth ridges of hills show their bare heads in the form of a series of large steps. It is skirted on the east, the southeast, and the southwest, by the mountains of Egypt and Arabia, and terminates almost in a point at the head of the Red sea, between which and the Mediterranean is a series of salt lakes and dry hollows, interrupted only by strips of low ground. The breadth of the isthmus in this direction is about seventy-five miles.

Rivers and Lakes.—The Nile, and some of its tributaries, are the only rivers in Egypt. Its general direction and character have been heretofore described. Swollen by its tributaries, and by molten snows from Abyssinia, the Nile rises annually to a considerable height, commencing about the middle of June, and ending in October. The rich deposite left on the receding of the waters, and the fertilization caused by irrigation, render the period of inundation a matter of great moment to the Egyptians. Without these periodical depositions the whole of Egypt would be a desert, and the fertility which now characterizes the moistened and alluviated portions of the country could not exist. The Natron lakes lie to the south of Alexandria, and consist of a series of six lakes, the banks and waters of which are covered with crystals of salt and natron. There are also several salt-water lakes along the coast, viz., the Mareotis, Maudie, Etko, Bourlos, and Mewyalch.

Climate.—The climate of Egypt is very hot, a natural result of the character of its own soil, and the aridity of the surrounding districts. January, February, and part of March, is the Egyptian spring, and the weather is delightful; March to May hot and dry—the season of the plague; June to September, during the swelling of the Nile, pleasant and refreshing. Except near the seashore, very little rain falls. In October, November, December, and January, the climate of Upper and Central Egypt is singularly agreeable.

Political Divisions and Chief Cities.—Egypt is divided (geographically

rather than politically) into Lower (which borders on the Mediterranean), Middle, and Upper Egypt. These are subdivided into provinces, the names of which, with those of their principal cities, are as follows :—

LOWER EGYPT.

Provinces.	Chief Cities.
Cairo	Cairo,* Boulak, Suez.
Kelyoub	Kelyoub, Shoubra.
Belbeys	Belbeys.
Shibeh	Shibeh Tel-bastan.
Met-Camar	Met-Camar.
Mansourah	Mansourah, Tmay-el-Emdid.
Damietta	Damietta, Menzaleh.
Menhallet-el-Kebir	Menhallet-el-Kebir.
Tantah	Tantah, Zefti.
Melyg	Melyg, Shybyn-el-kum.
Menouf	Menouf.
Negyleh	Negyleh, Terranch, Wardan.
Fouah	Fouah, Rosetta, Deirout.
Damanhour	Damanhour, Rahmanieh.
Alexandria	Alexandria,† Aboukir, El Keyt.

MIDDLE EGYPT.

Provinces.	Chief Cities.
Jizeh or Geeza	Jizeh, Mitrahineh.
Atfieh	Atfieh.
Benisouef	Benisouef, Boush, Feshn.
Faioum	Medinet-el-Faioum.
Minieh	Minieh-ibn-khasim.
Monfalout	Monfalout, Sanabou.

UPPER EGYPT.

Provinces.	Chief Cities.
Siout	Siout, Aboulig, Sadfeh.
Girgeh	Girgeh, Hon, Kau.
Kenneh	Kennet, Cous, Kelt. Erment.
Esneh	Esneh, Edfou, Assouan.

PRODUCTIVE RESOURCES.—The agricultural products of Egypt are, wheat, barley, beans, lentils, sesamum, mustard, flax, anise, saffron-wood, tobacco, lemons, oranges, bananas, citrons, several species of grapes, sugar-cane, indigo, cotton, rice, &c. Palm-groves, sycamores, tamarinds, cassia, acacia, &c., cover the country. There is not a great variety of garden-flowers, but roses are raised in large quantities, and rose-water forms an important article of export. Horses, mules, camels, and sheep, are among the domestic animals of Egypt. Among its minerals are marble, alabaster, porphyry, jasper, granite, common salt, &c. The principal manufactures are leather, flax, hemp, silk, cotton, carpets, glass, and earthen-ware.

COMMERCE.—The commerce of Egypt consists mainly in the export of her raw produce, and of the articles brought from the interior by caravans. The transit to East India and China through Egypt is under the special direction of the Egyptian government. A railroad is now in progress, and a ship canal has long been under discussion, to unite the Mediterranean with the Red sea. The principal articles of import at Alexandria are wood, tarbouches, nails, spices, iron, pitch, cloth, cochineal, paper, and lead : but the extreme poverty of the people, and the circumstance of the great mass of them wearing little clothing, are such obstacles to the extension of the import trade, as only a complete change in the method of regulating their industry and rewarding their labors will remove. The aggregate amount of imports annually amounts in value to about $12,000,000 ; and of exports to about $9,000,000. There are in Cairo 164 guilds or corporations, associated for the protection of the different trades they represent ; and all matters or disputes are referred to the jurisdiction of their respective guilds. There is a tribunal of commerce at Cairo.

ANTIQUITIES.—Egypt abounds in the most remarkable antiquities. The pyramids are, perhaps, the most astonishing monuments of human labor. That of Cheops, which is the largest, is 499 feet high, with a square base of 693 feet in extent, consisting chiefly of a solid mass of masonry. There are extensive catacombs existing in various places, from which mummies or embalmed bodies are obtained. Some of these have been deposited 3,000 or 4,000 years. At Thebes, in Upper Egypt, are remains which are calculated to fill the beholder with astonishment. Almost the whole extent of eight miles along the river is

* CAIRO, the capital of Egypt, is more oriental and Mohammedan than Alexandria, or even than Constantinople. Mehemet Ali adorned Cairo with a magnificent palace and mosque. The streets are narrow, and the Saracenic architecture and coloring of many of the buildings give a picturesque effect to the place, not readily forgotten by a traveller. The city contains about 40,000 inhabited houses, and a quarter of a million of inhabitants. Cairo was founded by Gaber, a general of El-Mohez, the first of the Fatemite califs of Egypt, in 969, and four years subsequently it became the capital.

† ALEXANDRIA is well situated for trade, at the northwest corner of Egypt, on the Mediterranean, in 31° 15′ north latitude, and 29° 53′ east longitude. It is strongly fortified, and the European square is of a magnitude and elegance such as is rarely met with in an oriental city. At the commencement of the present century Alexandria was a miserable village, but is now the naval station of the pacha, and a great emporium of the foreign trade of Egypt. Its population amounts to about 80,000.

covered with magnificent portals, obelisks decorated with sculpture, forests of columns, and long avenues of colossal statues. One of the temples is a mile in circumference. It has twelve entrances; the body of the temple consists of a prodigious hall or portico; the roof is supported by 124 columns. Four beautiful obelisks mark the entrance to the shrine, which contains three apartments, built entirely of granite. The temple of Luxor probably surpasses all the other ruins of Egypt, in beauty and splendor. In front are two of the finest obelisks in the world; they are rose-colored marble, 100 feet in height. But the objects which most attract attention are the sculptures, which cover the whole of the northern front. They contain, on a great scale, a representation of a victory gained by one of the ancient kings of Egypt over his Asiatic enemies. The number of human figures is 1,500; 500 on foot, and 1,000 in chariots. Such are some of the remains of a city, which perished long before the records of authentic history begin. An immense accumulation of ruins, mostly buried in the sand, Pompey's pillar, Cleopatra's Needle, cisterns, catacombs, pyramids, temples, and columns, some entire and some broken, scattered here and there, are the sad remains of the once rich and powerful empire of the Ptolemies.

Education.—A system of public instruction is established, consisting of primary schools, where the pupils, having acquired the rudiments of education, are advanced to schools of a higher grade, where they are taught languages, the science of astronomy, geography, grammar, mathematics, music, agriculture, medicine, obstetrics, surgery, &c. There are also three military schools, to fit the scholars for the cavalry, artillery, and infantry practice.

Population.—Mr. Lane estimates the Arab Egyptians at 1,750,000; the Copts at 150,000; Turks, 10,000; Syrians, Greeks, Armenians, and Jews, at 17,000; wandering Arabians, white and negro slaves, Nubians, and Franks, at 70,000; total, 1,997,000. The Osmanlis or Turks, the dominant race, are about 18,000 to 20,000; they constitute the beys or aristocracy: the Copts rank next to the Osmanlis, are chiefly engaged in trade, or in the public offices; they are Christians, have a patriarch and twelve bishops, but keep harems like the Turks. There are about 2,000 Mamelukes remaining, who act as guards or servants to the Turks. The Fellahs constitute the laborers, agricultural and general, and from this class the conscripts are taken for the army: their condition is very wretched and degraded. The Bedouins, or Arabs of the desert, are the principal owners of camels; they have abandoned their former predatory life, and are charged with the conveyance of the Anglo-Indian mails and baggage from Alexandria to Suez.

Government.—The government of Egypt is a despotism, vested in a pacha, who is aided by a council, generally chosen from the governors of provinces, and whom he consults at will. The executive is confided to heads of departments for foreign affairs and commerce, public instruction, public works, war, finance, and interior. In the villages there are sheiks, or local chiefs, invested with considerable authority.

History.—This part of Africa was probably peopled soon after the dispersion of mankind on the plains of Shinar. Four hundred years after the deluge Abraham visited the country, and when Jacob sent his sons down into Egypt to buy corn, it appears to have been a civilized country, with a well-organized government, and to have made considerable advances in the arts and sciences. Subsequent to this period, the region seems to have been overrun by foreign tribes and savage hordes, who held sway for 500 years. There is a blank in the historic annals, until 525 years B. C., when Egypt, by conquest, became a province of the Persian empire. Alexander the Great, on his conquest of Persia, occupied Egypt, and founded Alexandria. At his death, Ptolemy Lagus (Soter) became viceroy, enlarged and beautified Alexandria, commenced the canal of Suez, and built the Pharos or Light-House. The dynasty of the

Ptolemies lasted 300 years, and closed with the death of Cleopatra, when Egypt became a province of Rome. Christianity spread from Palestine to Egypt; many Jews embraced the "new religion," the Egyptian church obtained a name for its austere sanctity, and the bishops of Alexandria took precedence of the bishops of Rome. At the period of the rapid spread of Mohammedanism, Egypt fell an easy prey to the followers of the crescent. Alexandria was pillaged, its third great library, with its rich historic records, was destroyed, and the country for some time governed by the califs of Bagdad. These again were in their turn expelled in 1250 by the Mamelukes, who raised to the throne one of their own chiefs, with the title of sultan; and this new dynasty reigned over Egypt till 1517, when the Mamelukes were totally defeated, and the last of their sultans put to death by the Turkish sultan Selim, who reconstructed the government, and placed at its head a pacha of his own appointment, who presided over a council of 24 Mameluke beys or chiefs. This state of things continued till 1798, when, in May, Napoleon Bonaparte set sail from France for the conquest of Egypt. In June following, by a stratagem, he got possession of Malta, where he left a garrison of 3,000 men; and in July landed in Egypt with a large army, defeated the Mamelukes, and occupied Alexandria. Leaving garrisons at Alexandria, Rosetta, and other places, Napoleon proceeded toward Cairo, defeated the Mameluke forces in a pitched battle near the pyramids, and became master of Upper Egypt. The French fleet in the meantime was destroyed by Admiral Nelson at Aboukir; the English having the command of the Mediterranean, cut off reinforcements from France, and, by the advice of the late marquis Wellesley, an army was sent from England, under Sir Ralph Abercrombie, and another from Calcutta and Bombay, up the Red sea, under Sir David Baird. The troops from Europe defeated the French at Alexandria, who lost 3,000 men; the loss of the English was comparatively small, but it included their brave commander, the gallant Abercrombie. The combined Anglo-Indian army appeared before Cairo in June, on the 22d the French offered to capitulate, and by the treaty of Amiens, in 1803, Egypt was restored to the Ottoman Porte, who, by means of Mehemet Ali, treacherously destroyed most of the Mamelukes, and drove the remainder to Nubia. Mehemet Ali, for his military successes in the service of the Porte, was made viceroy of Egypt, and, in 1839, he set up claims to Syria and Candia, as well as to Egypt, in which he was defeated only by the combined power of England and Austria, who drove his son Ibrahim Pacha with some difficulty out of Syria. Mehemet Ali was a man of great abilities, of unscrupulous character, and inordinate ambition. He carried on successful wars in the adjacent countries, and accomplished many useful reforms in Egypt. He organized a large fleet and fine army, and endeavored by ill-judged monopolies, and by being himself the chief trader, to restore the commerce of Egypt. Before his death he fell into a state of imbecility, which compelled the transfer of sovereign power to his son Ibrahim, who died of cholera in 1848, and was succeeded by the present ruler, Abbas Pacha, who is nominally under the sovereignty of Turkey, but really independent, and receives merely investiture at the hands of the sultan.

Nubia.—Nubia, the ancient Ethiopia, is an extensive region lying south of Egypt, and extending to the confines of Abyssinia. It is bounded on the west by the Great Desert, and on the east by the Red sea: nearly the whole country is composed of rocky and sandy deserts. The atmosphere is extremely dry, the summer hot, the climate healthy, and the plague unknown: the whole region is subject to the pacha of Egypt, being conquered by Mehemet Ali, in consequence of which some changes are already apparent in the character of the people. The various Arab tribes who reside in the deserts of Nubia, and who were constantly at war with each other, are no longer fierce and turbulent, but

are reduced to complete subjection under the iron sway of the ruler of Egypt. Foreigners can now traverse, under the protection of the pacha, the whole region from Egypt to the confines of Abyssinia with comparative safety. The little fertility which Nubia possesses is artificial, being produced by raising the water of the Nile, by means of wheels worked with oxen, to the level of the highest banks: in this way a strip of land of from one eighth of a mile to half a mile in breadth is rendered productive, on which is cultivated dourra, a coarse species of grain, barley, cotton, tobacco, and indigo; the latter is manufactured for the benefit of the pacha. The trade from the interior, which passes through Nubia to Egypt, consists mostly of slaves, gold, and ivory; that from Egypt and Arabia, European goods, arms, &c. Of the two classes of people of this region, the inhabitants of the towns are generally a handsome race, well made, strong and muscular, the females are modest and pleasing in their demeanor; the inhabitants of the desert are of Arab origin, and in their manners, customs, &c., resemble the same people in other quarters. Beyond the limits of what is considered Nubia, the pacha of Egypt possesses Soudan, Kordofan, Sennaar, and Fazuola, a province of Abyssinia to the south of Sennaar. SOUDAN lies on the Nile, below the junction of the two rivers. Kartoun, its capital, is a place of considerable importance.* The trade of the river, which was formerly monopolized by the pacha, was thrown open in 1852. The province of Sennaar includes the country between the White and Blue Nile, extending south to the twelfth degree; it is for the most part a plain of grass, abounding with elephants and lions. The town of Sennaar is now of little importance. Kordofan is situated west of the White Nile, and consists of sterile plains, with occasional oases covered with grass and thorns, except in the southern part, where there is a mountain range; it is separated from Dar-Fur and Bergoo by vast deserts. Obeid, the capital, once a flourishing commercial city, is a mere collection of mud huts. To the south of these provinces is the country of the Shillook negroes: the Nile flows through it. The land on both sides is highly cultivated, and for 200 miles the villages are crowded so close to each other along the shores, that they almost form two continuous towns. This part of the White Nile is the most thickly populated region in Africa, the number of Shillooks being estimated at between two and three millions. The most remarkable feature of Nubia is the stupendous ruins of cities, temples, &c., found half-buried in sands from the desert. The most noted of these is the temple of Ipsambul, on the Nile, cut out of the solid rock, and adorned on the inside with colossal statues, and painted sculptures representing castles, battles, triumphant processions, &c.; while on the outside are four colossi, larger than any sculptured figures in Egypt except the Sphinx, one of them measuring, from the heel to the top of the cap, sixty-five feet. Near Merawe are seven or eight temples adorned with sculptures, hieroglyphics, &c., the largest of which is 450 feet long by 159 wide; and near Shendi are forty pyramids, supposed to be more ancient than the pyramids of Egypt.

* KARTOUN, from its commanding position at the mouth of the Blue Nile, which flows down from the gold and iron mountains of Abyssinia, and on the White Nile, the only avenue to a dozen negro kingdoms, rich in ivory and gum, and being nearly equidistant from the provinces of Sennaar, Kordofan, Shendy, and Berber, is the metropolis of all this region of country. The town is large, clean, and better built than any of the cities of Upper Egypt. It extends about a mile along the south banks of the Blue Nile, and is three fourths of a mile wide. On the river are many large and beautiful gardens, filled with tropical fruits and plants. The buildings are generally one story high, with mud walls. The goods brought up the Nile are here distributed, in exchange for the products of the interior of Africa. One half the population are slaves; but this traffic, which has been extensive, is now nearly stopped, in consequence of the exactions of the pacha, who levies a duty of almost their total value.

ABYSSINIA.

The name of Abyssinia is applied to a vast territory, watered by the upper branches of the Nile, situated between 7° and 16° north latitude, and 33° and 43° east longitude. It is bounded on the east by the Red sea, on the northwest by Nubia, on the west by the Shillooks, and on the south by the Mohammedan kingdom of Adel; the greater part of these last two frontier lands consists of wild regions occupied by the Galla tribes, who always ravaged, and have recently conquered, a large portion of the Abyssinian monarchy. It is difficult even to guess the dimensions of a region of which there are no fixed limits; but somewhere between 700 and 800 miles from east to west, by 500 or 600 from north to south, may form a tolerable approximation.

Physical Aspect.—Abyssinia presents great inequality of surface. It consists principally of a series of plateaus, intersected and separated by mountain ridges. A lofty range called the Lamalmon bars the entrance from the Red sea. The mountains of Samon, between the Tacazze and the Coror, are still more elevated. To these may be added the mountains of Godjam, Efat, and Amid-Amid, supposed to be a branch of the Mountains of the Moon. The country in general is extremely fertile and productive, where it can be cultivated; and is in a great measure exempted from that empire of sand which dooms so large a portion of Africa to sterility.

Rivers.—Of these the Bahr-el-Azrek or Blue river is by far the most famous. It rises in the mountains of Godjam, and flows through the lake Dembea into Sennaar, where it joins the Nile. This is the stream whose source was discovered by the celebrated Abyssinian traveller, Bruce, and considered by him as the main branch of the Nile. Other streams are the Tacazze, Mareb, Hamazo, and Hawash. The principal lakes are Dembea and Ashangee.

Climate.—This necessarily differs with the elevation of the country, the direction of the mountains, &c. In the deep valleys and low grounds the heats are frequently excessive; and this, combined with excess of moisture, renders them unhealthy. But the climate of the plateaus is extremely fine, particularly that of Amhara, which is said to be a perpetual spring. The seasons are divided into wet and dry. The rainy season continues from April to September.

Political Divisions.—The country consists of three separate independent states: Tigre, Amhara, and the districts of Shoa, Efat, &c. Of these Tigre is the strongest, from its position as well as from the warlike spirit of the people and their resources. Its capital and chief town is Antalow, a place of about 1,000 houses. Amhara comprises the central provinces, and has long been in a state of complete anarchy. Gondar, a place of 6,000 inhabitants, is its capital. Shoa includes the southern provinces of the late empire. Its capital is Ankobar, a small and unimportant place.

Productive Resources.—The country is very fertile, and has a vast variety of products; among which are wheat, barley, millet, and other grain. Cotton, senna, myrrh, figs, citrons, oranges, dates, &c. Salt, iron, and gold, are important mineral productions, found in great quantities.

Religion.—The Abyssinians boast that their country was the Sheba of Scripture, and that it was converted to Judaism several centuries before the Christian era. It is much more certain that, prior to the middle of the fourth century, the nation was converted to Christianity, which it has ever since possessed. This is, however, more tinctured with Judaism than in the other nations of Christendom. Boys and girls are circumcised; the Mosaic laws in relation to clean and unclean meats are respected; the seventh day is their sabbath, and their altars have the form of the ark of the covenant.

History.—The ancients never acquired any accurate knowledge of Abyssinia. To it, along with Sennaar, they applied the comprehensive name of Ethiopia. The Arabian geographers make very slight mention of the country, so that Abyssinia remained almost unknown till near the era of modern maritime discovery. In 1445, the emperor of Abyssinia sent an embassador to the senate of Florence, and wrote a famous letter to his subject priests at Jerusalem. This, and the favorable report of the priests now referred to, gave rise to the most exaggerated rumors. The Portuguese monarchs, who took the lead in exploring the eastern world, immediately devised measures for acquiring a knowledge of so remarkable a region. The passage to India by the cape had not yet been discovered: Abyssinia was therefore viewed as a tract through which the commerce of India might be conducted. Two envoys were therefore sent to explore it, one of whom perished, while the other arrived in 1490 at the imperial court, residing then at Shoa. The reports which he made respecting the country were favorable, and having prevailed on the empress-mother to send an Armenian as an embassador to Portugal, the Portuguese sent out several other embassies. Of these the most remarkable is that described by Alvarez, in 1520. He remained six years in the country, and traversed it from north to south. Paez, Almeyda, Lobo, and others, successively undertook journeys into Abyssinia, and from the accounts of these and other missions, Tellez first (1660), and afterward (1681), principally compiled their histories. Public curiosity, however, with respect to Abyssinia, gradually subsided; till toward the close of the last century (1790), it was revived by the publication of Bruce's Travels. Many of the circumstances he relates are so very extraordinary as to give to his descriptions a good deal the appearance of romance. The authenticity of his works was in consequence very greatly doubted; and it must be admitted that some of his statements have been shown to be unfounded, and that others are of very questionable authority. But the accuracy of the leading features of his works has been fully established by Mr. Salt, and other late travellers.

NORTHERN AFRICA.

Ghersh of Tripoli, 8 cents.

This extensive region, under the designation of Barbary, comprises the states of Tunis, Algiers, Tripoli, and Morocco. It lies between 25° east and 10° west longitude, and 30° and 37° north latitude; and is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the west by the Atlantic ocean, on the east by Egypt and Marmorica, and on the south by the great desert of Sahara; the length from east to west is about 2,600 miles, the breadth varies from 150 to 500 miles. The extent of the Barbary states may be taken at from 650,000 to 700,000 square miles, and their population has been variously estimated at 10,000,000 to 14,000,000.

Physical Aspect.—This region is traversed from east to west by the elevated chain of mountains called Atlas, of which the highest pinnacles rise above the plains of Morocco 11,400 feet; but beyond the frontier of that state, and eastward through Algiers and Tunis, they seldom exceed 3,000 or 4,000 feet; and in the territory of Tripoli they sink into lower eminences, and gradually

subside to that flat sterile surface which characterizes Northern Africa. Between the mountains and the sea is a tract of level, well-watered, and fertile country, from 50 to 100 miles in width. This is the most productive and best inhabited portion of Barbary.

Rivers and Lakes.—The only navigable river of Barbary is the Mejerdah, and that is so only when its waters have been swollen by the rains. The other rivers are the Shelif, Mohalou, Aoulkos, Seboo, Wad-el-Quiber, Omerberg, and Tensift or Wady Mara-kash. The lakes are those of Marks, the Alshat, Melgig, Beni-Gumi, Bizerta, and Fezarah, all of which are salt.

Climate.—The maritime districts, protected by the Atlas mountains from the hot winds of the desert, have a temperate climate. Rain is frequent during winter, but in summer is rarely known. In the rainy season the mornings are cold, and frost is occasionally seen. Winter is the season of verdure. In the northern regions the heat is oppressive. The climate is variable and unhealthy in Eastern Barbary.

Commerce.—The trade of the Barbary states is limited; the exports consisting chiefly of the raw produce of the soil. In ancient times the African coast formed the granary of the Roman empire; and its corn continued to find a copious market in southern Europe till exportation was prohibited by the absurd policy of all the Barbary states except Tunis. Even there it is loaded with heavy imposts. The most active commerce of these states is that by the caravans with the interior of the country south of the great desert. Tripoli sends hers by Fezzan to Bornou and Houssa, and thence to the southward as far as Ashantee; Tunis, by Gadamis and Tuat to Timbuctoo; Morocco, across the broadest part of the desert to the same city, and to the countries on the Senegal. Into these regions the caravans carry salt, with various articles of European manufacture.

History.—Barbary is supposed by some to have been so called by the Romans, to signify the country of barbarians; by others from its signifying, in the native language, a desert, and by Bruce, to mean the country of the Berebers, or shepherd race, who appear to have been the original inhabitants of the Atlas mountains, where their descendants still dwell. They are a vigorous race, with a peculiar dialect, living chiefly by pasturage, agriculture, and hunting, and are noted for their superior horsemanship. They often make excursions into the plains, at times carrying their inroads to the very gates of Morocco. This country was known to the Phœnicians B. C. 1,000 years. Dido, B. C. 860, founded on its shores the celebrated city of Carthage; the Romans disputed the possession of the country with the Moors, Gertulians, Numidians, Africans, Libyans, Cyrenæans, and Marmorides, and having obtained undisputed sovereignty, divided it into the five provinces of Pentapolis, Cyrenaica, Africa Propria, Numidia, and Mauritania. In the year A. D. 428 the Vandals made themselves masters of the Roman territories in Barbary, but in 530 Belisarius recovered them for the Greek emperor, and they formed a part of the eastern empire until 697, when the Saracens or Moors subdued all this portion of Africa. On the decline of the Saracenic power in Spain, the Moors found themselves unable to maintain possession of the opposite African coast, and they called in the aid of the Turks, who founded the maritime states of Barbary, which for centuries harassed the Christian nations of Europe.

Tunis.—Tunis, the ancient Africa Propria, is bounded on the north and east by the Mediterranean, on the west by Algiers, and on the south by the territories of several independent Arab chiefs. It is distant 100 miles from the coast of Sicily. The extent of the coast-line is about 500 miles, and the cultivated region stretches into the interior from 200 to 300 miles. The country is well watered by numerous streams, which have their origin in the mountain chains

that intersect the Regency; the principal rivers are the Mejerdah (Bagradah of antiquity) and the Wad-el-Quiber. The climate is dry, the soil, where irrigated, or on the banks of rivers, productive, and the mountains contain mines of silver, copper, and lead, and one of quicksilver. Under any other dominion but that of Turks, Tunis might again become a great country. Many towns of 5,000 to 15,000 inhabitants are situated on their banks, and the scenery around is very beautiful. TUNIS, the capital, is about ten miles southwest of the site of ancient Carthage; it contains about 130,000 inhabitants, of whom 30,000 are Jews, and 1,500 Christians; there is a magnificent palace built for the bey, one great mosque, and many smaller ones, and in the centre of the city a vast piazza, which at one time had 3,000 shops for the sale of merchandise. GOLETTA, the citadel and harbor of Tunis, is six miles to the westward, and strongly fortified, but capable of being commanded from a hill 3,500 yards distant, to the northward. Ancient CARTHAGE was built on a high promontory forming the western extremity of Tunis bay. Around are extensive plains, sometimes interrupted by hills that form a semicircle of more than 100 miles in extent. The site of this once-celebrated city is now only traceable by its cisterns, the remains of some amphitheatres, and an aqueduct which appears to have been carried on arches over a very irregular country more than seventy miles. KAIRWAN, the first seat of Saracenic empire in Barbary, is in the middle of a sandy desert. The great mosque here is said to be supported on 500 pillars of granite. In 1533, Barbarossa took possession of Tunis, to which Tripoli was then subjected. In 1574 the province was annexed to the Turkish empire, who appointed viceroys to rule it. At present the Tunisian soldiery elect their own bey, and in some districts the people are governed by their own chiefs. The state revenue is about $5,000,000, and the troops about 10,000 in number, namely, 4,000 Turks or Levantines, and 6,000 natives.

Algiers.—Algiers, anciently the kingdom of Numidia, and part of Mauritania Cæsariensis, extends from about 8° 30′ east longitude to 1° 30′ west longitude, in length about 560 miles, and in breadth from 40 to 100 miles. A part of the Andes chain extends along the coast of the Mediterranean, and in the month of March, the mountains crowned with snow, and gilded by the sun's rays, form a magnificent sight. Other spurs or offshoots of the Andes traverse Mauritania from east to west; some are of great elevation. Algiers has several rivers, but none of great size; also some salt and fresh-water lakes. The modern Barbary state contains four divisions, viz., Moscara, Algiers Proper, Titterie, and Constantina. The last-named, 230 miles long by 100 broad, is the largest and most fertile of the Algerine districts. Bona, on the coast, anciently Hippona, is the site of an episcopal see founded by Augustine, Constantina, the Cirta of antiquity, is thirty leagues south of Bona, and is said to contain 30,000 inhabitants. Algiers Proper is partly undulating, bounded on the south by a rugged mountain range. The city is built on the side of a hill which rises gradually from the shore, and has an imposing effect from its fortresses, mosques, minarets, castles, and palace. The mole is a series of formidable batteries nearly level with the sea, and, well-manned, ought to be able to destroy any hostile fleet. The population is variously estimated at from 30,000 to 117,000.

HISTORY.—Originally divided between two nations, one the subjects of Syphax, and the other of Massinissa, Cæsar reduced the whole country to the condition of a Roman province. When the Roman empire was dismembered, this portion of Africa fell to the share of the Goths, under whom it continued to the year 600, after which it successively fell into the hands of the Vandals, Greeks, and Saracens. In the sixteenth century the Spaniards successfully invaded the country; Barbarossa, a pirate, was raised to power for their expulsion: by cruelty and usurpation he made himself chief ruler, and his brother

and successor placed Algiers under the protection of the Porte, and fortified the place by the aid of 30,000 Christian slaves. The attacks of the Corsairs now became so formidable, that Charles V., of Spain, attempted their subjugation; but two thirds of his fleet was destroyed by a storm, and the remainder fell an easy prey to the Algerines. In 1617 the French sent a fleet of fifty ships, but made no permanent impression on the pirates. In 1620, an English squadron was equally unsuccessful. The Venetians severely chastised the Algerines, and destroyed many of their galleys. In 1681–'82, the French, under Du Quesne, destroyed fourteen Algerine vessels-of-war, bombarded Algiers, and nearly laid it in ruins. But nothing seems to have checked the atrocities of these sea-robbers. In 1775 and 1783 the Spaniards attacked Algiers, but were glad to purchase peace with 1,000,000 dollars and a large ransom for their prisoners. In 1815 the Americans, determined neither to pay tribute, nor silently submit to depredations, captured a frigate belonging to the dey, who consented for the future to renounce all interference with their shipping. In 1816 a British fleet proceeded to Algiers, made a peace with the dey or chief, and obtained the liberation of all European prisoners, for a stipulated ransom; but in a few weeks a large body of Neapolitan coralline fishermen were murdered at Bona. The British fleet and five Dutch frigates immediately proceeded to Algiers, burnt the corsairs to ashes, silenced the batteries, destroyed half the town, and induced the dey to sue for peace, which was granted on the liberation of all captives, the abolition of Christian slavery, and a public apology to the British consul for having thrown him into prison. The Algerines, notwithstanding this punishment, continued their piracies upon French and Austrian vessels. An expedition was fitted out by King Charles X. in 1830. The troops landed unopposed, about ten miles west of the city. The French attacked the city by land, opened the trenches on the 29th of June, commenced a vigorous bombardment, and on the 5th of July Algiers capitulated. After several years of alternate success and defeat, Abdel-Kader, the leader of the Arabs, who refused to become a subject of France, surrendered, and was conveyed to the south of France, where he till recently remained a state-prisoner. The French are now in complete possession of the Algerine territories, but their acquisition has cost many millions, and the lives of more than one hundred thousand French soldiers.

Tripoli.—Tripoli, the most eastern of the Barbary states, stretches along the coast about 800 miles. Its breadth inland varies greatly, owing to the frequent interruption of the desert; but its area has been estimated at nearly 100,000 square miles, and its population at from 1,500,000 to 2,000,000, principally Moors and Berbers, with some Turks, negroes, Jews, and Christians.

Physical Aspect.—The coast lands, except at the bottom of the gulf of Sidra, where the desert and sea are conterminous, are here, as in the rest of Northern Africa, extremely fertile. These, however, seem to be the only valuable portions of the surface. The Atlas ranges approach nearer the sea here than in most other parts of Barbary, and immediately beyond them the country is a sandy arid desert. Tripoli has no river of any consequence, though a number of small rivulets descend from the mountains to the sea. Neither are there any lakes in the country, which, accordingly depends for its irrigation and consequent fertility almost solely upon the rains. These, when they occur, fall incessantly for several days and nights; they then cease suddenly, and not a drop more descends for several months together. The most severe famines are sometimes experienced from a continuance of drought; but when this is not the case, the country appears to have lost none of its ancient productiveness.

Chief Towns.—Tripoli, the capital, stands on a low neck of land, 13° 13′ east longitude, surrounded by an extensive wall; but a large portion of the enclosure is unoccupied. The caravansaries, mosques, bazars, and better class

of houses, are built of stone, and regularly whitewashed twice a year: they are usually two stories high, but not equal to those of the same class in either Tunis or Algiers. The population does not exceed 25,000. Tripoli carries on a considerable trade with the interior of Africa, to which it may be considered as one of the principal shipping ports; and its bey used to exercise considerable influence over Fezzan and the tribes of the adjacent desert. Close to the city is a fine Roman triumphal arch, and other antiquities. Along the coast, east and west of the city, between the two Syrtes, are the inconsiderable towns of Zoarah or Ezwarah, Lebidab, Magna, and Mesurata or Misratah.

Productive Resources.—There is probably no country so highly favored by nature as this is with respect to a rapid succession of the crops. The rains generally begin after gathering the dates, toward October, in the beginning of which month the Arabs plough and sow their grounds. In December and January the weather becomes dry and extremely pleasant. In the beginning of April, the market before Tripoli is abundantly stocked with cattle, poultry, and vegetables of every kind. Toward June, almonds, figs, apples, pears, peaches, plums, nectarines, grapes, and melons, are in season, and incredibly abundant. Cotton has been cultivated very successfully by various individuals; but, owing to a want of encouragement, does not form an article of export. Formerly, a quantity of raw silk formed one of the exports, but its cultivation has latterly been neglected. Tobacco, madder, senna, galls, saffron, &c., are grown in small quantities. The dates of Tripoli are finer than those of any other part of Barbary, and form the principal food of the inhabitants.

Manufactures.—The natives of this regency manufacture carpets, bournoûses, haiks, and other woollen fabrics, camlets, mats of palm-leaves, goats' hair sacks, Morocco leather of different kinds, earthenware, prepared skins, and a few other articles. The manufacture of potash, like the exportation of salt, is a monopoly of the bey.

Commerce.—The exports from Tripoli by sea are, wool of excellent quality, mantles, and other articles of dress, oil, senna, and other drugs, madder, barilla, hides, goat and sheep-skins dressed, dates and other fruits, cattle, ostrich feathers, iron, gold-dust, saffron, &c. The imports are principally provisions, colonial produce, timber, pitch, spirits, cochineal, indigo, damask, and other silk fabrics, looking-glasses, toys, swords, pistols, mock-pearls, brass, tin, coral, writing-paper, cotton-stuffs, &c. From Tripoli caravans go to Mourzouk, where a large fair is held in December and January, and to which the products of Bornou, Sockatoo, Houssa, Timbuctoo, &c., are brought.

Government.—The government is in the hands of a bey or pacha, who rules with despotic sway, and is chosen from among the Turkish officers resident in Tripoli, being confirmed in his authority by a firman from the Turkish sultan. He presides in the divan, and is assisted in his various duties by a bey-commander-in-chief.

History.—In the middle ages, Tripoli generally shared the same fate of the remainder of this portion of Africa. In 1522 it was given, by the emperor Charles V., who had become possessed of some authority over it, to the knights of Rhodes; but they were driven from it, in 1551, by the Turks. Fezzan was rendered tributary in 1714; but the authority of the pacha over either that part of the country or Barca, appears to be little more than nominal, or, at any rate, very much disturbed. Fezzan, indeed, may be considered an independent state. The relations of this country with Turkey are also very equivocal.

Morocco.—Morocco is bounded on the north by the straits of Gibraltar, on the east by Tlemcon, a district of Algiers, and by a part of the Sahara desert, which also bounds it on the south, and on the west by the Atlantic. The length is about 500 miles, breadth 200 to 400 miles, and the area about 300,000 square

miles. The population is variously estimated, from 5,000,000 to 15,000,000. but the most reliable estimate is 8,000,000. There are four grand divisions: Fez, comprising the northern, Morocco, the central, Tafilet, the eastern, and Suz, the southern provinces.

Physical Aspect.—Of the topography of this extensive region little is known; the Atlas chain of mountains, with numerous buttresses, traverses the country in a southerly direction from the Mediterranean toward the great desert. Numerous streams are given off at either side of the dividing range—none of great magnitude. The coast-line, although presenting many capes, has few good harbors. The soil is everywhere fertile, and in some favored spots three crops of grain are gathered in one season. Yet with all this productiveness, so little industry and providence are exercised by the inhabitants, that they are sometimes, in bad seasons, reduced to the greatest privations, and hundreds of them often die of famine.

Climate.—The climate is warm in the interior, but generally agreeable, the thermometer being seldom 5° below freezing point. In January the fields are clothed with flowers, in March barley is cut, and wheat in June; the vintage is over by the beginning of September. Rain is abundant.

Chief Towns.—Morocco, the capital, is built in the centre of a great plain on the north side of a part of the Atlas mountains. The city is fortified in the ancient style, and contains, according to Jackson, 270,000 inhabitants; but other authorities make the number only 30,000. The palace is of great extent, the mosques numerous, and the buildings similar to other Moorish cities—houses enclosed in quadrangles, with flat roofs, and with their upper stories nearly meeting each other across the narrow streets. Mogadore, the principal trading port in the empire, is formed by a small island, but ships of large burden can not enter the inner harbor, which is strongly defended by batteries. The town, built on a desert flat, contains about 10,000 inhabitants, who carry on considerable trade with the capital. Saffee, north of Mogadore, supposed to have been built by the Carthagenians, has a good roadstead, except in south or southwest winds. Sallee, in 34° 3′ north latitude, 6° 40′ west longitude, formerly the stronghold of Moorish pirates, is formed by the union of two rivers, the Buregreb, and the Gueroo. A sandbar which has been gradually forming, now prevents the entrance of vessels of even 150 to 200 tons. The walled and fortified town contains an immense and dreary dungeon under ground, where the captives of the Sallee rovers were imprisoned. Tangier, 30 miles west-southwest of Gibraltar, is the residence of the consuls of the different Europeans who are accredited to the government of Morocco. The town came into the possession of the English in 1662, as part of the marriage portion of Catharine of Braganza, the queen of Charles II., but it was evacuated by order of that government in 1684, and its fortifications demolished. Population about 10,000. Couta is directly south of Gibraltar, at the entrance of the straits, and Tetuan is pleasantly situated within them. Fez is a walled city, with 50,000 inhabitants, and numerous mosques, colleges, hospitals, and baths.

Productive Resources.—The principal products of Morocco are, wheat, barley, fruits, wine, gums, honey, &c. Holme-oaks, cork, and juniper trees, are found on the mountains, and immense quantities of date-palms, vines, olive-trees, sugar-canes, cotton, tobacco, are found in the level country. Among the domestic animals are horses (which have been held in high esteem for their superior breed), mules, sheep, and goats (hides of the latter furnishing the celebrated morocco leather). Oxen and camels are also bred in great quantities.

Manufactures.—Manufactures are confined within very narrow limits. Every woman, however, understands the art of spinning wool and cotton; and the men weave it into cloth. Domestic labor, in short, which is almost wholly performed by the women, supplies the principal wants of the people. Tanning

appears to be almost the only exception ; leather is made in great quantities all over the empire, but especially in the large towns. About 250,000 dozens of goat-skins are annually exported. The red-caps, silk-fabrics, and girdles of Fez, are highly esteemed ; carpets, chip-baskets, and earthen-ware, are manufactured in the different provinces ; and in the different towns may be found skilful saddlers, carpenters, locksmiths, and farriers.

Commerce.—The commerce of Morocco is carried on with Europe, the Levant, the interior of Africa, and America. The exports of Europe, comprising cow-hides, goat-skins, olive-oil, gums, wax, with small quantities of wool, dates, honey, indigo, shawls, carpets, &c., amount to about $800,000 a year ; and the imports, consisting chiefly of manufactured and colonial goods, only to about $600,000. The tariff is regulated by the whim of the emperor, and prohibitions and imposts vary at every port. The trade with this country is comparatively small.

Education.—The education of the Moors is, at present, greatly inferior to that of their forefathers in the middle ages, and is almost exclusively confined to learning the Koran by rote, reading, and writing. At the high school of Fez, however, more aspiring students may receive a sort of instruction in grammar, geometry, and the mixed sciences, logic, rhetoric, medicine, and theology. The art of printing is unknown, so that great numbers of persons are employed, in all parts of the empire, copying the Koran, &c. Arts and sciences are in the most barbarous state ; the literature and history of foreign countries are wholly unknown ; and their only musical instruments are a rude pipe, and more barbarous drum.

Religion.—The prevailing religion is Mohammedanism, and nowhere are its tenets and observances more rigidly enforced. The Jews are universally despised, nor are Christians allowed to reside anywhere except in Tangiers, Mogadore, El-Araitch, and Tetuan. There is a Franciscan convent in Tangiers, being the only Christian establishment throughout Morocco.

Government.—The government of Morocco is thoroughly despotic ; the emperor is the maker, interpreter, and not unfrequently the executioner of the laws. His power is supported by 4,000 negro mercenary troops, with 12,000 Moors, who are chiefly cavalry, and by a body of Moorish and Arab militia. Six thousand troops are stationed near the person of the emperor, as a body-guard ; the remainder are distributed throughout his dominions. The navy consists of but a few small frigates and row galleys with 6,000 seamen.

History.—Morocco, together with other parts of North Africa (as previously mentioned) was successively under the dominion of the Romans, Goths, Vandals, Greeks, and Saracens. On the subjugation of the country by a fierce Mohammedan tribe termed Moravedi or Morabeths, whose sway extended from Algiers southward to Timbuctoo, and Soudan, they carried their victorious arms across the straits of Gibraltar to Spain, and defeated the Christians in the great battle of Sala, in 1086. In the twelfth century the Moravedi yielded to the dominion of the Almohades, supposed to be the, Kabyles of the Bereber nation, who became masters of the Mogreb, or "great empire of the west." After several revolutions carried on by different chiefs, Kabyles, the present reigning family of Morocco obtained the ascendency, about 300 years since. The Moors lost their European possessions near the close of the sixteenth century, and in 1810, a new state was formed in the southern part of the empire, by a son of the late emperor.

CENTRAL AFRICA.

Central Africa extends from the Atlantic ocean eastward to the regions of the Nile, on the borders of Nubia and Abyssinia, and from the confines of the Great desert southward to the gulf of Guinea and the mountains of the Moon, supposed to extend across the centre of Africa. This region is about 3,000 miles from west to east, and about 900 from north to south, its superficial area being about 2,500,000 square miles. It comprises the maritime regions of Senegambia and Guinea, and a large number of petty states in the basins of the Niger and Lakes Tchad and Fittre, and which are included under the general name of Soudan. Many parts of Central Africa are sandy and barren; while others, especially on the banks of the Niger, are fertile, and extremely populous.

Senegambia.—Senegambia extends from the 9th to the 18th parallel of north latitude, is divided into a number of small states or kingdoms, and includes the French settlements of Fort St. Louis, at the Senegal river, of Goree, and a post at the Gambia river, also Bathurst, and the other British positions on the last-named river.

Physical Aspect.—The coast-line is flat, intersected by rivers and streams, and thickly-wooded. The northern portion looks like a prolongation of the Sahara, but, proceeding in a southeasterly direction, the country becomes elevated into parallel mountain terraces, which increase in height toward the southward. The principal promontories are, Cape de Verde, the most western portion of the continent of Africa, and Cape St. Mary, at the mouth of the Gambia.

Islands.—The islands are, the low sandy islet of St. Louis, at the mouth of the Senegal; the insulated rock called Goree, 300 feet high and 600 fathoms long, separated from Cape de Verde by a channel 1.500 fathoms wide; and the Bijuga or Bissagos Archipelago, near the embouche of the Rio Grande.

Rivers and Lakes.—The Senegal, Gambia, and Rio Grande, are the principal rivers that water Senegambia, from the former two of which the country derives its name. The Senegal has its sources in the highlands of the Mandingoe terrace, and, after a circuitous course, receiving many tributaries, and forming several branches, it disembogues, after a course of 800 miles, into the Atlantic in 16° 5′ north latitude, where there is a shifting sandbar which prevents the entrance of vessels drawing more than ten feet water. The scenery in the upper part of the river is very beautiful, but the miasm exhaled from its shores renders a residence near the stream almost certain death to foreigners. The Gambia is a noble stream; its embouche at Cape St. Mary's is about twenty miles wide; it gradually contracts in width, but it is navigable for more than 100 miles by a frigate, and for 350 by a vessel of 150 tons. It has a course of more than 600 miles from its source, in the country of Fouta-Dialon, to the Atlantic. The Rio Grande is about half the length of the Gambia. It rises in the Jalon region, receives several tributaries, and disembogues by a wide embouche near the Bijuga Archipelago. Its banks are covered with towns and plantations. There are several lakes in Senegambia. The Kayor is near the borders of the Sahara, the others become fertile plains in the dry season.

Climate.—The climate of this region is almost insupportable to foreigners at all periods of the year. At Senegal the thermometer stands frequently at 131° Fahrenheit, and from June to October the quantity of rain which falls amounts to from fifty to sixty inches of water; during the rest of the year there are heavy dews. In the interior the climate is cooler and more salubrious, owing to the elevation of the land, and the greater freedom from vegetable miasm.

Guinea.—The origin of this name is unknown. Some ascribe it to a Nigritian city named Jenne. The country is supposed to have been discovered by the Portuguese in 1471, who formed establishments on the coast, but were driven into the interior by the Dutch in 1604. The limits formerly assigned to Guinea by different nations have been considerably modified by later settlements.

Physical Aspect.—The form of the coast is remarkable. It stretches to the southeast as far as Cape Palmas, and then runs nearly east to the Old Calabar river. In this wide extent there are several tracts of a sandy and sterile nature, with a chain of lagoons or coast lakes, separated from the ocean by a narrow strip of land ; but the general features of the Atlantic frontier are those of an immense forest, with lofty backgrounds clothed with underwood.

Beginning with Upper Guinea or the North coast—

One Dollar, 95 cents.

Sierra Leone was made a free settlement for liberated negroes by the friends of Africa, in 1787. The aspect of the country is very picturesque. It contains several villages, and, having outlived much obloquy and misrepresentation, may be now said to be a thriving settlement. The Timmanee country, a fine region, which borders on Sierra Leone, is 90 miles long by 55 broad. Freetown, the capital of the Sierra Leone territory, in 8° 29′ north latitude, and 13° 14′ west longitude, is situated about the centre of the north coast of the peninsula, on a gentle acclivity, and occupies a space of more than two miles in circumference; it contains 20,000 inhabitants. The streets are of good dimensions, and well laid out. Immediately behind is a fort 200 feet above the town. The whole population of the settlement is about 60,000, who are distributed in villages. The climate of this district is generally fatal to Europeans, who number about 150 ; but occasionally the country is exempt from sickness, and there are instances of foreigners living for many years at Sierra Leone in perfect health.

The Grain Coast extends for about 300 miles from Cape Mesurado to Cape Palmas, and is included in the republic of Liberia.

The Ivory Coast extends about 300 miles from west to east, or from Cape Palmas to about Cape Apollonia, and forms a slightly-curved line. It contains no large rivers (Cavally is the principal) or towns, but the country is populous, and the people are said to be more savage, violent, and revengeful than those of any other part of Africa. It includes the Maryland colony.

The Gold Coast extends for about 350 miles, and includes the territories of the Ashantees, Fantees, and other comparatively powerful nations, speaking different languages. Also the British settlements at Cape Coast Castle, Accra, Annamaboe, &c. The British territory now extends over nearly the whole of the Gold Coast, from Assinee river to near the Volta river, and backward into the Ashantee country, all subject to the jurisdiction of British authorities. The population in this division of the country is estimated at 290,000. Cape Coast Castle and Accra are commanding military positions, and important stations.

The Slave Coast extends from the Rio Volta to the Rio Lagos, which separates this territory from Benin. It includes the populous kingdoms or territories of Koba, Quitta, Popo, Ardrak, and Whidah ; the latter very fertile, and containing many inhabitants.

Benin has a thickly-wooded coast, indented with arms of the sea, which form numerous marshy islands, and cause a particularly insalubrious climate. The great river Niger, Jolibah, or Quorra, takes its rise in Lornahill, one of the Kong mountains, runs northeast to Timbuctoo, then pursues an easterly and a

southeasterly course until it disembogues into the Atlantic, between the bays of Benin and Biafra, after traversing a distance of 2,300 miles: it has an unobstructed navigation for a distance of 500 miles.

Ashantee.—The most powerful, commercial, and civilized natives on the western coast are termed the Ashantees; their territories, which are an assemblage of feudal states, under one chief or sovereign, are situated north of the Fantee country, near Cape Coast Castle. The Ashantee king, aided by European musketry and ammunition, subdued the Fantees and other tribes, and in 1823 destroyed the governor of the British settlements (Sir Charles Macarthy), and all the troops at Cape Coast Castle. Komassi, the capital of Ashantee, is reputed by some to contain 200,000 inhabitants. There are many other populous towns in this monarchy, which is said to have been founded in 1700.

Dahomey, to the eastward of Ashantee, is also a powerful kingdom, ruled by a despotic monarch, who maintains a large standing army (one third of which are females), and who was the greatest slave-dealer in Africa, until his trade was broken up by the English, in 1852. Wydah is its seaport. The country, drained by the Niger, Becroft, and old Calabar rivers, is, at some distance from the sea, fertile and salubrious. Of the Foulah and Mandingoe territories, near the Grain and Ivory coasts, we know little. They are bounded to the north by the lofty range termed the Kong mountains, which stretch from east to west, parallel with the coast, are clothed with fine timber, and possess, it is said, along their base, fertile and well-watered districts.

The Republic of Liberia is situated between the parallels of 4° 30′ and 8° north latitude, and has a coast-extent of about 400 miles, with an average breadth of forty miles, enclosing an area of 16,000 square miles. Adjoining it on the southeast is the Maryland colony, extending 120 miles. The population consists of about 8,000 free persons of color, who have emigrated from America, and 300,000 natives, under the protection of the government. The country in the immediate vicinity of the ocean is generally low and marshy, but becomes more elevated toward the interior, where it is beautifully undulating and well-watered, until it reaches a range of mountains, from thirty to fifty miles from the coast, which are 1.000 to 1,500 feet in height, containing iron ore in large masses. The soil is extremely fertile, and adapted to the culture of almost every tropical production, such as sugar-cane, coffee, cotton, rice, arrow-root, &c.: dyes, gums, palm-oil, and many valuable woods, are obtained in the greatest abundance. The climate on the seacoast has been considered unhealthy, but it improves as the land is brought under cultivation; while in the interior it is salubrious and healthy. Gallinas, Cape Mount, St. Paul, Mesurado, Junk, St. John, Sinou, Grand Sester, and Cavally, are the principal rivers; besides these there are a number of smaller streams, navigable for a short distance. Monrovia, the capital of Liberia, is beautifully located on the coast, at the mouth of the Mesurado. It is regularly laid out, with broad streets crossing each other at right angles. It contains some 500 houses, with several churches, school-houses, and other public buildings. The town of Bassa Cove lies on the point formed by the junction of the rivers St. John and Benson; and almost immediately opposite, at the reunion of the St. John and Mechlin rivers, is situated the town of Edina; and seven miles up the St. John is the town of Bexley. Cape Palmas, a place of great beauty and natural advantages, is the site of Harper, the chief town of the Maryland colony.

The colony of Liberia was established at Monrovia in 1822, under the patronage of the American Colonization Society, to provide an asylum for the free and emancipated colored population of the United States, where they could test their capacity for self-government, under the benign influences of Christianity and civilization, and be free from the depressing influences of the white race.

Their numbers increased by emigration from America, and by accessions from native tribes, and their borders were extended by purchases of land from the natives of the country as circumstances required, until July 26, 1847, when, with the cordial consent of the A. C. Society, who had till then appointed the governor, Liberia declared its independence, and adopted a constitution modelled upon that of this country. Slavery is prohibited, and no white person is eligible to office, or can become a citizen, or hold real estate in the republic. Their independence has been recognised by the principal European nations. J. J. Roberts, who had previously been governor, was elected the first president. Churches and schools have been established, the land has been brought under cultivation, towns have been built, and all the tokens of a well-regulated government are everywhere exhibited. They have done more to break up and effectually exterminate the slave-traffic on the west coast of Africa than all other means combined. Liberia, from its favorable geographical position, may be justly regarded as the door through which Africa, with its 150,000,000 inhabitants, shall be opened to the traffic of the world. The Liberians have constitutions adapted to the climate, and a similarity of color with the natives. They can penetrate the interior with safety, and prosecute their trade in the bays and rivers of the coast, without suffering from diseases which are fatal to the white race. They are destined undoubtedly to become the agency for developing the great agricultural and commercial resources of that continent, beside being the means of regenerating her benighted millions, by spreading the light of Christianity and civilization.

Soudan.—Among the more important states comprised under this name are the following: Timbuctoo lies north of the Niger, and is the centre of the caravan road from Barbary. The city is a large, open town, three miles in circuit, situated in a sandy plain, eight miles north of the river. The houses are built mostly of brick; but the streets are only wide enough for three horsemen to ride abreast. It contains seven mosques. The port is at Cabra, a small town on the Niger. Timbuctoo may be considered as the principal mart of this part of Africa. The chief pays tribute to the Tuaricks of the desert, to prevent them from plundering the caravans. Bambarra, formerly a large state, is now divided into two governments, which may be styled Upper and Lower Bambarra. In Upper Bambarra are the towns of Sego, with 3,000 inhabitants; Bammakoo, a commercial town further up the Niger; Marabou, Yamma, Sami, Sansanding, and Silla. In the lower kingdom, which is now the principal power in Soudan, are Jenne, its capital, a large and well-built town, at the end of a small island in the Niger, and the seat of a great trade; El-Khamdo-l'Illah, eighty miles northeast of Jenne, so famous for its schools; and Isaka, at the confluence of two branches of the Niger, and the port of embarkation of travellers to Timbuctoo. Massina, on the Niger, is the capital of a kingdom governed by the brother of the chief of Jenne. The empire of the Foulahs was founded by sheik Othman Danfodio, who died in 1816. Sackatoo, its capital, is a large city, on a low hill near an affluent of the Kawara, about four days' journey from the great river. It was built in 1805, by Danfodio, and has been surrounded by Bello with a wall twenty-four feet high, and a dry ditch. Its population is estimated at 80,000. Bornou, comprising the region lying between Lake Tchad on the east, and Houssa on the west, in from 10° to 15° north latitude, and 12° and 18° east longitude, is generally flat, covered with thick underwood and high coarse grass. The sultan is said to possess 80,000 armed slaves. Kouka, the capital, is large, well-built, and well-walled. Other states of Soudan are, Sangaran, Boure, Kankan, Wassoulo, Kong, Banan, Nyffe, Yarriba, Fundah, Wari, Bonny, Qua, Ibou, Boqua, Kashna, Zegzeg, Kana, Loggun, Begharme, Bergoo, Dar-Fur, Kordofan, &c.

Productive Resources.—Agriculture is practised over the whole of Central Africa, though in a very rude manner; yet this imperfect tillage, of grounds moistened by inundation or artificial watering, is sufficient to produce abundant crops. So supine is their culture in Bornou, that in this fine climate they do not rear a vegetable of any description except a few onions; nor a fruit except limes, and those only in the garden of the sheik. In Houssa, however, two crops of wheat are raised in the year, and the markets are abundantly supplied with fruits and vegetables. Manufactures are not numerous, but carried on with considerable skill. The most important is that of cotton cloth, which is said to be beautifully woven, and skilfully dyed with fine indigo.

Commerce.—Commerce in Central Africa is carried on with some activity, though in modes rather peculiar. Maritime trade is precluded, by its situation, far distant from any coast. Even river navigation is not practised with much diligence, except on the Niger, and that chiefly on its lower course. Commodities are conveyed by large troops, sometimes resembling little armies, called caravans, cafilas, or coffles. Those which pass between Northern and Central Africa, across the immense expanse of desert, employ camels, whose patience of thirst, and soft and elastic hoofs, almost exclusively fit them for travelling over this wide surface. In the rugged and mountainous tracts burdens are chiefly conveyed by means of asses; but in the great fertile plains the human head is the most common vehicle; those of females, not excepting the wives of the great men, and even of the monarch, are decidedly preferred. The articles conveyed across the desert, and exposed for sale in the markets of Central Africa are chiefly of a showy and ornamental kind. Salt, in large quantities, is brought from pits in the interior of the desert; and goora, or kolla nuts, a favorite luxury, are transported from the western to the eastern parts of this region. The returns made to Northern Africa from Timbuctoo consist partly of gold and ivory; but slaves are the chief article sent thence, and almost the sole one from Houssa and Bornou.

Education and Religion.—Education throughout Central Africa is in a depressed state. The efforts made by Christian missionaries on the western coast of Africa are beyond all human eulogium; they have encountered sickness, torture, death, but they have persevered, and it has pleased their Divine Master to bless their exertions. Churches and school-houses have been erected, in various places, by the natives themselves. Mohammedanism, which spread from Northern and Central Africa, toward the western coast, and received a check at the Kong mountains, in whose forests the negro race who refused the yoke of Islamism took refuge, has found a potent rival in the Christian creed; several negroes have become zealous travelling missionaries, and one of the most effective conquests of the cross over the crescent may probably be in Western Africa, and lead to the final extension of Christianity over that vast continent.

Government.—The government, in the countries of Central Africa, is completely despotic; and, in most of the states, the homage paid to rulers and grandees is far more abject and debasing than in any civilized empire. In Yarriba the greatest lords, when they approach the sovereign, throw themselves flat on their faces, kissing the ground, and piling heaps of dust upon their heads. The sacrifices, on the death of any prince or chief, of his principal officers and favorite wives, is yet prevalent in many of the states. In other respects, however, the greatness of the monarch is not supported by much outward pomp and state. Their houses, usual attire, and daily habits, differ little from those of their meanest subjects. They have scarcely any revenue; but enrich themselves by presents, and thus particularly appear to accumulate such an extravagant number of wives. They also carry on a good deal of traffic, and scruple not to employ both power and stratagem in turning it to their advantage.

SOUTHERN AFRICA.

The name of Southern Africa is applied to the whole of the country south of the mountain range supposed to extend across its interior from west to east, and which has been termed, from a very early period, the "Mountains of the Moon." This division of Africa comprises about 4,000,000 square miles, and is subdivided into Lower Guinea, or the Western Coast Regions, Eastern Africa, or the Eastern Coast regions, South Africa, or the British and Dutch settlements, adjoining the Cape of Good Hope, and the hitherto unexplored, and of course entirely unknown, interior.

LOWER GUINEA.

Lower Guinea, or the Western Coast Regions, extends along the Atlantic, from the bay of Biafra to the country of the Hottentots. This division comprises Biafra, Gaboon, Loango, Congo, Angola, and Benguela.

Biafra.—Biafra lies along the eastern coast of the gulf of Guinea. This region of country is but little known. The heat of the climate is extreme. The customs of the people are rude and barbarous. The principal articles of export are ivory and palm-oil. The old Calabar river, with its extensive estuary, disembogues opposite Fernando-Po, a large island on which a British settlement was established by Admiral W. F. W. Owen.

Gaboon.—This section of country lies immediately south of Biafra, and takes its name from the river Gaboon, which empties into the Atlantic, twenty miles south of the equator. For forty miles from its mouth the Gaboon is from eight to fourteen miles wide, and is noted for its grandeur and beauty. The country for one hundred miles into the interior, is uniformly level, and covered with dense forests. Farther into the interior it is hilly, and rises at length into magnificent mountains. This country is inhabited by numerous tribes, living on the banks of the Gaboon and its tributaries and villages. They are governed by absolute sovereigns, and are almost constantly at war with each other. The productions consist of plantains and cassada (the staple articles of food), yams, sweet potatoes, Indian corn, sugar-cane, &c. The trade consists principally in ivory, gum, beeswax, and mats; the latter article of most beautiful workmanship. Several schools have been established among these people, and the masses are in an improving condition.

Loango.—This state lies north of the Congo river, and extends along the coast about 400 miles; its interior limits and character are but vaguely and imperfectly known. The climate is described as fine, rain of rare occurrence, and never violent, but dews abundant. The soil in the vicinity of the sea-coast is fertile, yielding in profusion a great variety of tropical productions. Its principal towns are Mayomba and Malimba, both noted as marts for slaves.

Congo.—The name of Congo was formerly applied to the whole coast from Cape Lopez to Cape Frio, but is now restricted to a small territory between the river Congo or Zaire on the north, and the Dando river on the south. Near the sea the country is low and flat, traversed by numerous streams, and abounding in sandy deserts, but in general very fertile. The climate is pestilential. The interior consists of a succession of terraces, forming a fine, rich, and populous country. The Congoese belong to the least-favored of the negro

race, and are sunk in the lowest state of degradation and superstition. San Salvador, Batta, Sundi, Condi, and Caugu, are the towns best known. San Salvador was formerly a great slave market.

Angola.—Angola was formerly a part of Congo, from which, however, it has been politically separated since the middle of the sixteenth century. It is extremely mountains, being destitute of plains, except on the seashore, with some small flats on the sides or in the gorges of the mountains. The population is dense. Loango, or St. Paul's, is the capital, and contains about 10,000 inhabitants. The principal exports are ivory and slaves. It is watered on the south by the Congo river.

Benguela.—Benguela extends from Angola south to the Bembasoughe. It is mountainous, and watered by a number of streams. Dense forests of tropical trees, and, higher up, of those of temperate climes, clothe the mountain-sides. Vines, bananas, and various fruit-trees, also abound, but owing to the indolence of the people grain is seldom grown. The mountains yield copper, sulphur, petroleum, and crystals. The coast is excessively unhealthy, but the interior is salubrious. St. Felipe de Benguela is the principal town. The western coast, south of Benguela, is a barren, waterless desert. Its few inhabitants are similar in appearance to the Hottentots.

EASTERN COAST REGIONS.

This division of Southern Africa (generally termed Eastern Africa) extends from the strait of Bab-el-Mandeb to the Delagoa river, in latitude 25° south, a length of about 3,000 miles. It extends inward about 600 miles. This vast range of country contains many grand features of nature, and a large proportion of fertile territory capable of yielding the most valuable productions; yet scarcely any part of the world is less known, or has excited less interest among Europeans. The Portuguese, as soon as they had discovered a passage into the Indian seas, occupied all the leading maritime stations, from which they studiously excluded every other people. Extensive, though ill-explored, natural objects diversify this region. The coast consists almost entirely of spacious plains, often of alluvial character, and covered with magnificent forests. It appears, however, that at 200 or 300 miles in the interior considerable ranges of mountains arise. The rivers also are of considerable magnitude, though only their lower courses are at present known. The Zambeze may rank in the first class of African streams. It enters the Indian ocean by four mouths, the principal of which are the Cuamo and Lubo. Near Quilloa several great estuaries are found. The Pangany, near Mombas, is also an important river. North of this place is the estuary of the Ozee: it is no doubt the largest stream in this part of Africa, as intelligent natives state that its navigation extends a distance of three months' travel to the north, through populous and well-settled regions; it is probably the Zebee of the interior. The only great lake known in this quarter is Maravi. It is represented as an inland sea, and salt like the ocean. This territory is generally occupied by brown or black nations, who, however, bear no resemblance to the real negroes, except in color; some of them are numerous, and not destitute of arts and industry. The coast, however, has been, in modern times, chiefly in possession of two foreign powers. The Portuguese, when, in the fifteenth century, they made their way round the Cape, found almost all maritime stations in the hands of the Arabs, whom they succeeded in driving successively from each, and occupying their place. The divisions of the eastern coast are, Barra Samauli, or the land of the Samaulis, Zanguebar, and Mozambique.

Barra Somauli.—This name is applied to a section extending from Cape Guardafui south to Cape Bassas, running inward about 700 miles. It is inhabited by the Somaulis, a people who live in numerous independent tribes. This territory is subdivided into Adel, Berbera, and Ajan, and has three towns, little visited by Europeans: Zeila, Tajurrah, and Berbera. These are situated on the coast, and have good harbors, and their inhabitants barter the goods brought from the interior to the Arabians. Berbera is the seat of a great fair. The exports are coffee, sheep, fragrant gums, myrrh, ostrich feathers, gold-dust, hides, skins, and slaves.

Zanguebar.—This division of Eastern Africa extends along the coast in a southwesterly direction, from Cape Bassas to Cape Delgado, and extending inland 600 miles. It is subdivided into Magadoxo, Melinda, Mombaza, and Quilloa. It is chiefly occupied by negro tribes in a state of utter barbarism. The sovereignty of the country, is claimed by the imaum of Muscat. The islands of Pemba, Zanzibar, and Monfia, near the coast, also belonging to the imaum of Muscat, are very productive. The foreign commerce is considerable, the customs yielding the imaum about $150,000 per annum. The only towns worthy of note in Zanguebar are, Magadoxo, Mombaza, Brava, and Melinda, once a flourishing city, but now in ruins.

Mozambique.—Mozambique extends from the southern limit of Zanguebar southwesterly to Delagoa bay. This country is claimed by the Portuguese, but their jurisdiction does not extend ten miles inland, the natives of the interior being entirely independent. The principal towns are Mozambique, Quilimané, Sofala, Inhambané, and Bahia da Alagoa.

SOUTH AFRICA.

South Africa comprises the European settlements at and in the immediate vicinity of the Cape of Good Hope, and includes Cape Colony, Caffraria, the Country of the Hottentots, and that occupied by the Bechuanas. It is about 750 miles in extent from north to south, and from 600 to 900 miles from east to west. South Africa is composed of chains of lofty mountains, and intervening plains and valleys running east and west, excepting one range beginning at Table bay, and stretching to the northward along the western coast about 250 miles. The first chain, running east and west, has, along the southern coast, a belt of undulating land, varying from ten to thirty miles in width, indented by several bays, and intersected by numerous streamlets; the soil is rich, the hills are well-wooded, and the climate equable and mild, from its proximity to the ocean. The next great chain is the Zwaarte Bergen or Black mountains; more lofty and rugged than the coast chain (in some places consisting of double and treble ranges), and divided from it by an interval of from ten to twenty miles wide, the surface of which is much varied, in some places barren hills predominating, in others naked and arid plains of clay, while widely interspersed are patches of well-watered, fertile, and beautiful grounds. The third range is the Nieuwveld's Bergen; between these mountains and the second range is the Great Desert, an elevated steppe or terrace, nearly 300 miles in length from east to west, 80 in breadth, and 1,000 feet above the sea, exhibiting a clayey surface thinly sprinkled over with sand, studded with occasional isolated hills, with here and there a few stunted shrubs, which seldom receive a friendly shower. The rivers are Orange or Gariep, Keis-kamma, Great Fish, Kowie, Sunday, Kamtoos, Black, Hartbeest, Elephant, and other streams, all, except the first-named, are small.

Climate.—The climate of this division of Africa is exceedingly salubrious; the mountain-tops are occasionally covered with snow, and the summer heat of the coast is mitigated by constant breezes from the sea. The seasons are the opposite of those in our country—December, January, and February, are the summer; June, July, and August, the winter.

Cape Colony.—This extensive British possession is situated within the parallels of 29° and 35° south latitude. Its average length from north to south is about 400 miles; its breadth from east to west about 500 miles; and its area about 200,000 square miles. Cape-Town, the capital, built immediately at the foot of Table mountain, along the shores of Table bay, on a plain which rises with an easy ascent toward the mountain, is regularly constructed, with straight and parallel streets intersecting each other at right angles, and shaded with elm or oak trees: the houses are chiefly of brick or stone, of a good size, and generally with a stoup or terrace before the door, shaded with trees. The population of the metropolis of South Africa is at present more than 25,000; of whom nearly half are white inhabitants, the majority being Dutch, or of Dutch descent. The castle, situate on the left on the town (entering from Table bay, is a strong fortification commanding the anchorage, capable of successful resistance against any force which may be brought against it. The fortress is pentagonal, with a broad fosse and regular outworks. It contains within its walls most of the public offices, and barracks for 1,000 men. The staple products of the colony are, corn, wool, wine, oil, timber, hides, horns, tallow, &c. The lofty promontory of South Africa was discovered by Bartholomew Diaz, a Portuguese, in 1487, and named by his sovereign Cape of Good Hope, in expectation of future beneficial results. In 1620 it was taken possession of by the English, but no settlement was formed. In 1650, a colony was planted there by the Dutch, in whose possession it continued till 1795, when it was again seized by the English, and, with a slight interruption, has remained in their possession ever since. The eastern part of the colony, called the district of Albany, was settled in 1820 by British emigrants. Its capital is Graham's Town. It is described as a large, ugly, ill-built, straggling town. The population of Cape Colony is about 200,000, of whom nearly one half are whites.

Country of the Hottentots.—This country lies between Cape Colony and the Bechuana territories, and extends from Caffraria westward to the Atlantic ocean. It is inhabited by various tribes, known under the general name of Hottentots. Their habits of life are filthy and slovenly; their villages form a confused mass of little conical huts, built of twigs and earth, and so low that the inmates can not stand upright. There are several varieties of the Hottentot race; the Basgismans or Bushmen, Koraunas, Namoquas, Damaras, and Griquas or Bastards. The Bushmen, or wild Hottentots, inhabit the country in the vicinity and north of the Nieuwveld's Bergen, and appear to be in the last extreme of degradation to which human nature can descend. They are squat, and excessively lean, and possess a wild, unsteady, sinister expression of countenance. They have no settled place of residence, but wander about the country, singly or in small parties, and subsist on roots, berries, grasshoppers, mice, toads, and lizards; they always use poisoned arrows in war, or in destroying wild beasts; and it is singular that the sting of the scorpion, dangerous to every other person, has no effect on the savages. In the interior the tribes possess many cattle, and some of them seem to enjoy a tolerable existence. The colonial Hottentots have a feminine appearance, with a complexion of a yellowish brown. They are fond of trinkets, are indolent and stupid, honest, faithful, and affectionate. Among some of the tribes the Christian missionaries have pro-

duced the happiest results. The Hottentots at the several missionary stations now cultivate the fields, own large numbers of cattle, exercise various trades, and contribute liberally to the support of religious and charitable institutions, exhibiting a striking proof of the power of Christianity to elevate men from the lowest point of intellectual and moral degradation.

The Bechuanas.—The Bechuanas inhabit the country north of the Orange. They have made considerable progress in the arts and in civilization. They have large towns; their houses are well-built, and remarkable for neatness; they cultivate the ground, and store the grain for winter consumption. Their features are more European than those of the Caffres, and often beautiful; their complexion is a brightish brown. Proceeding northeastward, the traveller finds industry and civilization increasing at every step, and beyond the Murutsi, the last of the Bechuana tribes are the Naquainas, a numerous and powerful nation. equalling the Murutsi in industry, and far surpassing them in wealth and numbers. They are known to all the southern tribes, as the people from whom all other nations receive their iron and copper wares. All, indeed, of the South African tribes to the south of Inhambané habitually regard each other as members of the same family; they are, as they express it, one people, and, unless when war disturbs their harmony, mingle together without fear or mistrust.

Caffraria.—The country of the Caffres extends from the eastern boundary of Cape Colony along the shores of the Indian ocean to St. John river, being about 160 miles in length and 100 in breadth, having a superficial area of about 16,000 square miles, and running back to the Qualhalamba or Orokenberg range of mountains. The extent of Caffraria was formerly much larger; but the wars with the English colonists at the Cape, and the British settlement of Natal, recently established, have resulted in bringing the territory of the independent chiefs within the above limits. The general physical character of the country consists of undulating plains, with numerous table-lands, cut through at intervals of five or six miles by rivers and streams which rise in the higher districts, and have generally an eastern course to the ocean, draining the whole country in their progress. Caffre, or Infidel, is a term of reproach applied to all the nations of South Africa, by the Moslem inhabitants farther north. They are supposed to be of Arabian descent, and appear to be a mixture of the Arab and the negro. They are of all nations the most completely pastoral, and have large herds of horned cattle, of which they understand thoroughly the guidance and management. They have no towns, but their villages, which are chosen with reference to pasture-ground, generally consist of several huts, but which they occupy only at night, or in bad weather. The women construct enclosures for the cattle, make utensils and clothes, cut wood, and manufacture rush-mats, and baskets of reeds so closely woven, as to hold milk and other liquids. The employments of the men are, war, hunting, and tending and managing the cattle which constitute the riches of the Caffre: he does not use them as beasts of burden, except when removing with his kraal from place to place: his delight is to be among them with his shield, by beating on which, and by different modulations of the voice, they are taught to go out to graze, to return to their enclosures, or follow their owner, according to his dictation. These people, like the Chinese, consider all other nations inferior to themselves, and suppose that Europeans wear clothes merely on account of having feeble and sickly bodies. They have scarcely any religious ideas: some of them, however, profess to believe that a great being came from above and made the world, after which he returned, and gave it no farther thought or care. Several missionary stations have of late years been established among them, with schools for the instruction of the children, and churches where many of the Caffres attend.

The country is under the dominion of the native chiefs, supervised by the governor of the Cape Colony.

Natal.—This recently-established British colony lies on the eastern coast, immediately north of Independent Caffraria, the Buffalo and Tukela rivers forming its northern boundary, separating it from the Zoolu country, and the St. John its southern limit. The extreme length of the territory is about 170 miles, and its breadth about 100, with a superficial area of 17,000 square miles; but the political boundaries are ill-defined. Natal was first occupied as an outlying station by some discontented Dutch colonists from the Cape of Good Hope colony. They were attracted by the fertility and beauty of the district, and, being joined by numbers of their countrymen, endeavored to establish an independent republic; this was prevented, but not until much blood had been spent in contests between the English soldiers and the Dutch Boers, who fought with great courage, and when defeated retired into the interior. Recently a regular British government was established at Natal, as a dependency of the Cape Colony. Now there is a lieutenant-governor, a legislative council, and all the functionaries of established authority, supported by a regiment of British troops, and an organized native police or militia. The physical aspect is similar to that of Caffraria. The Drakenberg mountains form its western limits. The principal rivers are, the Umzinckulu or Omtawoomoo, the Omganie, the the Omcomos or Cow river, and the Tugela. The soil is varied, and well-adapted for the growth of cotton, tobacco, maize, and other valuable products. The climate is salubrious, and may be varied by ascending toward the mountains.

Political Divisions.—The colony is divided into districts, under the following names:—D'Urban, Pieter Maritzburg, Umvoti, Impafane, Upper Tukela, Umzinyati, Umzimkulu, Umbezana, Drakenberg, Ingali, and Umzimvoobu.

Chief Towns.—Port Natal is the principal harbor of the colony. D'Urban, the port town, contains about 500 inhabitants. Pieter Maritzburg, the capital, fifty miles distant from Port Natal, is a large, well-watered, and pleasantly situated town, the centre of an active internal intercourse and traffic. The population is now from 1,500 to 2,000 but many of its most valuable citizens, the Dutch Boers, have migrated into the interior.

Population.—The number of white colonists in Natal is estimated at about 5,000, the natives at about 120,000.

Zoolu.—The Zoolu country, on the northeast of Natal, extending thence to Delagoa bay, is little known. Proceeding inland from the bay the country becomes elevated, and is thinly sprinkled with detached groves of trees. There are numerous running streams, fed by small lakes. Elephants, hippopotami (whose hides are impenetrable to leaden bullets), deer, and game of various sorts, are plentiful. The Zoolus are a neat, intelligent, and industrious people, rich in cattle, cultivating a fine country, and inhabiting large towns. They were originally few in number, but have spread their conquests over a large territory, and now form a nation composed of all kinds of tribes. They are, generally speaking, of a more ferocious character than the southern Caffres, and also more powerful.

OCEANICA.

Oceanica is a term now generally used to designate the islands or countries which are considered as forming the fifth grand division of the globe.* The islands composing Oceanica are situated partly in the south of Asia, and partly in the wide Pacific, between Asia and America, and extend from the northwest point of Sumatra to 158° west longitude, and from 40° north to 50° south latitude, comprising 160 degrees of longitude, or about 11,000 miles in length, and 90 degrees of latitude, or 6,210 miles in breadth.

Physical Aspect.—Several of the islands of Oceanica are extensive countries. Their whole surface may be estimated at 5,000,000 square miles, an extent perhaps nearly equal to one tenth part of all the land of the globe. It is impossible to state the number of inhabitants with accuracy, but they may be estimated at from 25,000,000 to 30,000,000. No portion of the globe has more inequalities of surface, and it is remarkable that all the mountain ranges have a general direction from north to south. In no part of the world are there so many volcanoes. In Schouten's island, near New Guinea, the flames and smoke rise calmly over a fruitful and smiling country; in other islands, dreadful torrents of black lava darken the shores. The volcano of Gilolo broke out in 1673, with a violence which made the whole of the Moluccas shake. The ashes were carried as far as the Magindanao, and the scoria and the pumice-stones, floating on the sea, seemed to retard the progress of the vessels. Several volcanoes are in constant activity in the Sandwich islands.

Climate.—The climate throughout Oceanica is for the most part delightful. Perpetual spring and summer display the opening blossom mingled with the ripened fruits. A perfume of exquisite sweetness embalms the atmosphere, which is continually refreshed by the wholesome breezes from the sea. Here might mankind, if they could throw off their vices, lead lives exempt from trouble and from want. Their bread grows on the trees which shade their lawns, and the light bark glides on the tranquil seas, protected from the swelling surge by the coral reef which encloses them.

Language.—The language of the inhabitants of Oceanica is the Malay and its various dialects, which has been traced and found to exist more or less from Sumatra almost to the shores of South America. The varieties of this tongue are so similar, that the natives of islands far distant from each other converse when they meet with great ease. The frequent occurrence of vowels and liquids renders it so soft and harmonious, that it has been called the Italian of the east. From this character, and the extensive commerce of the Malays, it has become in some measure a universal language on the coast and islands of Eastern Asia: it contains many words derived from the Sanscrit, Persian, and Arabian tongues.

History.—This portion of the globe began to be discovered after America and the South seas were known to Europeans. Magellan, who first undertook a voyage round the world, had promised the Spanish monarch that he would arrive at the Moluccas by sailing westward. On this voyage he discovered, March 6, 1521, the Ladrones or Mariana islands, a group which constitutes a

* Down to the middle of the eighteenth century, and even later, theoretical geographers, from the fanciful idea of the necessity of an equilibrium in the solid parts of the surface of the earth, supposed that a vast continent surrounded the Antarctic pole, and this imaginary region was termed Terra Australis. When these errors were corrected by the voyages and discoveries of Captain Cook, all the islands lying south of Asia, and in the Pacific ocean, had already received peculiar proper names. It did not seem convenient to the settlers of that period to add those islands either to Asia or to America, and they wished, therefore, to devise a name which should comprehend all of these, and at the same time express their position on the globe. The different terms, Australia, Australasia, and Oceanica, have been proposed by different writers, of which the last appears now to have the ascendency, from its being the most comprehensive.

part of Oceanica. We must, therefore, regard Magellan as the first discoverer in this portion of the globe. After Magellan, the Spanish navigators continued the process of discovery in this part of the world, particularly Alvaro de Mendana, who, in the last part of the sixteenth century, discovered the Solomon islands, and the Marquesas, and passed through the Society and Friendly islands without seeing them. Fernandez de Quiros, who had accompanied him on his third voyage, took a southerly direction, and hit upon a part of the Pacific ocean which contains the most islands. Hs made known to the world the Society islands, and Terra del Espiritu Santo. In the seventeenth century the Dutch began to explore this part of the ocean, and, besides several small islands, discovered the large island of Australia. Tasman, a Dutchman, and Dampier, an Englishman, continued these discoveries. In the middle of the eighteenth century, the English navigators, Byron, Wallis, and Carteret, and the French Bougainville, exerted themselves to extend the knowledge of Oceanica. But Captain James Cook, who circumnavigated the world from 1768 to 1779, contributed most to the more accurate examination of this portion of the globe, corrected the knowledge of Europeans, with regard to the islands already known, again discovered islands before seen, and was the original discoverer of New Caledonia, and the Sandwich islands. After the time of Cook, both the French and English exerted themselves to give the world a better acquaintance with Oceanica.

Political Divisions.—Oceanica comprises three great subdivisions, viz.: Malaysia, Australasia, and Polynesia; the details of each of these will be considered under their respective names. (See Map, page 388.)

MALAYSIA.

Malaysia, also called the Eastern Archipelago, comprises those numerous islands lying southwest from, and nearly approaching to, the great continent of Asia. The name is derived from the Malays, the principal and predominant race in this region. The islands are Borneo, Java, and Sumatra, usually called the Sunda isles, together with Celebes, the Moluccas or Spice islands, and the Philippines, besides other small groups and islands. Malaysia is bounded on the north by the Malayan sea and bay of Bengal, south by Australasia, east by Polynesia, and west by the Indian ocean and Chinese sea. The population of these islands can not, except in the instances of Java and the Philippines, be estimated with any degree of certainty. The whole is probably above 18,000,000.

Borneo.—The largest island in the Eastern Archipelago, and, after Australia and New Guinea, the largest island in the world, is in length from north to south more than 800 miles, and has an average breadth of 500 miles for nearly two thirds its length; the superficial area is estimated at 212,689 square miles. It is a mass of lofty mountains in the centre, sloping gradually down to alluvial and marshy tracts on the seashore. The population may probably be 2,000,000, and consists, in the interior, of a fine race termed Dyaks, and on the seacoast of Malays, Chinese, and other races. It abounds in elephants, tigers, buffaloes, and bears, and is rich in vegetable and mineral productions. Its capital is Borneo, a city of 12,000 inhabitants. The principal trade is with Benger Massin, a port of 9,000 inhabitants, the capital of a kingdom under the control of the Dutch. Eastward from Borneo extends the Sooloo archipelago, containing twenty-seven islands, with a population of 300,000, all devoted to piracy.

Java.—This magnificent island is separated from the south coast of Borneo by the Java sea, which is studded with "a thousand islands." Java is 600

miles long, 50 to 135 broad, area 42,335 square miles ; between 5° 52′ and 8° 40′ north latitude, and 105° 11′ and 114° 3′ east longitude. A volcanic ridge of mountains extend from east to west, with an altitude of 4,000 to 10,000 feet. The scenery is romantic, highly diversified, and beautiful beyond conception. Waving forests, ever-verdant plains, unfailing streams, and over all a pure atmosphere, and the glowing tints of a tropical sun. Its productions of sugar, coffee, tea, rice, &c., are enormous. Population about 9,000,000. It was discovered by the Portuguese in 1510 ; they were driven out by the Dutch, who have made settlements in various parts of the island. From 1811 to 1814 the English occupied the island ; it was restored at the peace to the Dutch, who have acquired almost a monopoly of the rich Eastern Archipelago. Batavia, on the north side, is the capital of Java. Madura, an island on the northeast of Java, 91 miles long and 31 broad, produces in great abundance rice, sheep, buffaloes, and bay salt. Eastward from Java extends a range of islands, of which they seem almost a continuation ; they are Bally, Lombock, Sumbawa, Jeendana, Mangeray, Floris, Sabrao, Solor, Lomblem, Pantar, Ombay, Wetter, and Timor ; the last is held jointly in possession by the Dutch and Portuguese. Coepang is the principal settlement of the first, and Deily of the last. Sumbawa contains the kingdom of Bima, tributary to the Dutch, also an active volcano, which, in 1815, committed dreadful ravages.

Sumatra.—To the northeast of Java is a splendid island, on which the English had formerly a possession at Bencoolen, which was exchanged with the Dutch for Malacca and Chinsurah, a station on the river Hooghly, above Calcutta. It lies between 5° 40′ north and 5° 3′ south latitude, the equator dividing it into almost equal parts. Its length is 1,050 miles, breadth 150 to 200 miles, area about 130,000 square miles. The straits of Malacca separate it from the Malayan peninsula. A double, and in some places treble, chain of lofty volcanic mountains runs from northeast to southwest, rising in some places to a height of 1,300 feet. Every production of the tropics grows nearly wild, and attains an enormous and almost incredible size. Pepper is annually exported to the extent of 45,000,000 pounds. Gold is plentiful ; the population scanty. The Dutch have several settlements, but have made little progress in civilizing and improving the island.

Celebes.—Celebes is situated to the east of Borneo, from which it is separated by the straits of Macassar, and from the Moluccas by the passage of that name. The island is of an irregular form, and is estimated to comprise 55,000 square miles. It contains several active volcanoes. Rice and cotton abound, various spices, fine timber, and rich gold mines. The Dutch have a fortress on the island, and the people are brave and fierce. Population, 2,000,000.

The Moluccas.—This group, also called the Spice islands, consists of Gilolo, Ternate, Tidor, Motir, Machian, Batchian, Oby, Ceram, Amboyna, Booro, and the Banda isles. They produce an abundance of sago, which grows wild ; also oranges, lemons, and other fruits, and are remarkable for spices, especially cloves, nutmegs, and mace. Gilolo, also called Almaheira, is the largest of the group, and presents the usual spectacle in these regions of a rude people governed by a number of turbulent chieftains. Ceram is mostly under the power of a single prince, who is tributary to the Dutch. Amboyna is the chief European settlement, and is the only one where, until lately, the clove was permitted to be raised. The town of Amboyan contains 7,500 inhabitants. These islands were discovered by the Portuguese, in 1511, but in 1607 were taken by the Dutch, to whom they now belong.

Philippines.—This group, originally called the Archipelago of St. Lazarus, lying on the north of Borneo, were discovered by Fernando de Magellan, in 1520–'21, who lost his life here, and were colonized by the Spaniards, after long contests with the natives. Manilla, the capital, was captured by the British in 1763, and restored to the Spaniards in 1764, under whose dominion the country has since remained. The Philippines form the most magnificent group of islands in the world; they are about forty in number, of which thirteen are inhabited. Luzon or Manilla, the largest, is about 414 miles in its greatest length, 144 wide, and 1080 in circumference. Mindanao is 225 miles long, 150 wide, and 600 in circumference. The others are Samar, Negros, Panay, Leyte, Mindoro, Bohol, Zebu, Masbate, and Burlos. They contain lofty mountains, many volcanoes, immense forests, numerous rivers, bays, and creeks, a great variety of the animal and vegetable kingdom, and are very productive in sugar, rice, silk, indigo, tobacco, coffee, cocoa, cinnamon, pepper, and other valuable commodities. The European Spaniards, and Spanish creoles, are less than 10,000 in number; the Indians, Chinese, and mixed races, number from 2,500,000 to 3,000,000. These valuable possessions were at one time a source of great wealth to Spain, and may again become so under a better system of government.

AUSTRALASIA.

The limits of Australasia, mingling, as it does, with the Polynesian islands toward the northeast, and with those of the Indian Archipelago toward the northwest, are not easily defined. They embrace, however, Australia, Van Dieman's Land, New Zealand, New Guinea, New Britain, New Ireland, Solomon's islands, New Hebrides, New Caledonia, and other smaller islands in their vicinity, lying south of the continent of Asia, in the South Pacific ocean.

Australia.—This island-continent,* by far the most important of the islands of Oceanica, lies between the parallels of 10° 45′ and 38° 45′ south, and the meridians of 112° 20′ and 153° 30′ east of Greenwich. It is separated on the north from the islands of New Guinea and the Moluccas by Torres strait, and from Timor and other islands in the Eastern Archipelago by the Arafura sea; on the south, from Van Diemen's Land or Tasmania, by Bass strait; its eastern and southern shores are washed by the Pacific, its western and northwestern by the Indian ocean. The extreme length of the island, from east to west, is about 2,500 miles, and its breadth, from north to south, about 2,000 miles. The area is estimated at from 3,000,000 to 4,000,000 square miles, and the coast-line at nearly 8,000 nautical miles. Viewing Van Diemen's Land as a portion or prolongation of Australia, we may consider it as forming one of the marked tripodal capes or promontories which stretch from Asia, Africa, and America, toward the Antarctic circle.

Physical Aspect.—For a great part of its circumference the island is surrounded by almost continuous ranges of mountains or highlands, in no place attaining a very considerable altitude, and for long distances consisting of elevated plateaus or table-lands, with isolated peaks and detached chains springing above the general level. There is, however, along all these chains a continuous height of land or water-shed which is never broken through, and which never recedes to any very great distance from the coast. The habitable portions of the island are limited to the slopes of these mountains and the space

* Continents differ from islands in nothing except size, and (as a consequence of that difference) variety in surface, climate, &c.; since every mass of land, however large, is finally surrounded by the ocean. Now the area of America is not more than six times that of Australia, while the latter is more than ten times that of either Borneo or New Guinea, the next largest portions of continuous land. Hence, from its being more proportionate with continents than with islands, it seems reasonable to class Australia with the former rather than with the latter.

between them and the coast. The width of this habitable belt, in those parts which have been explored and settled, is from 200 to 300 miles; but is probably much less in the remainder of the island. The interior consists wholly of an immense depressed plain, more hopelessly barren and uninhabitable than the desert of Sahara.* Australia therefore presents a smaller proportion of habitable territory than either of the other great divisions of the globe. The soil presents some singular anomalies, especially in respect to the distribution of the fertile portions. In other countries the fertile tracts lie usually in masses, and generally along the courses of the rivers. In Australia they occur in isolated patches, and most frequently upon the sides and summits of the hills. These fertile tracts are continually intersected by broad plains, the soil of which is too light for cultivation, though forming admirable pasturage, or by barren tracts furrowed by ravines, and clothed with scrub, entirely destitute of value. The best authorities assure us that of the land worth occupying, not more than one third is fit for cultivation; the remaining two thirds being only available for pasture-grounds.

Bays and Harbors.—The coast-line of Australia is marked by deep gulfs, fine bays, and capacious havens. On the north is the large gulf of Carpentaria, with York harbor or Endeavor strait at the northeast limit, and Melville bay at the northwest entrance; Van Diemen's gulf, Cambridge gulf, Admiralty gulf, Brunswick bay, Queen Charlotte's channel, Melville island, Raffles bay, and Port Essington, afford many secure ports on the north and northwest shores. On the west there are Prince Regent's inlet, Doubtful bay, King's sound, Buccaneer's and Dampier's Archipelago, Exmouth gulf, Shark's bay, Freycinet harbor, and Swan river. Port George the Fourth, Hanover bay, and Camden sound, lying close to each other, are noble havens, and have a fine tract of country in their rear. On the south shore are King George's sound, Fowler's bay, Spencer's and St. Vincent's gulfs, Encounter bay, Portland bay, Port Phillip, and Western Port. On the east are Jervis bay, Botany bay, Port Jackson or Sydney, Newcastle, Port Stephens, Port Macquarie, Moreton bay, Hervey bay, Port Curtis, Keppel bay, Port Bowen, Princess Charlotte bay, and numerous secure roadsteads situated on the northeast, between the Barrier reef and the coast.

Rivers.—As the mountains in which the Australian chains take their rise are so near the coast, the rivers have but a short course, and are mostly incapable of navigation. Few of them, indeed, are navigable twenty miles from their mouths. And as the mountains mostly fall far below the line of perpetual snow, the rivers are fed merely by the rains, and consequently vary greatly in the amount of water. The Murray, in South Australia; the Hunter, Clarence, and Brisbane, in New South Wales; the Albert, disemboguing into the gulf of Carpentaria; the Adelaide, into Van Diemen's gulf; the Victoria, into Cambridge gulf; the Prince Regent, Fitzroy, and Glenelg, on the northwest coast; and the Swan, in Western Australia, are the only streams navigable for ships for even a few miles from the ocean, and even their entrances are barred.

Climate.—The climate of Australia is, beyond all doubt, one of the most salubrious and healthful in the world, and is extremely favorable to physical and

* This great interior desert has probably never been traversed by the foot of man; and only two or three expeditions have ever penetrated far into its depths. The farthest point attained was by Captain Stuart in 1844. He made his way some 400 miles beyond the habitable limits, which brought him very nearly into the geographical centre of the island. This he found occupied by an immense plain, covered with ridges of drifting sand, often rising to the height of eighty or a hundred feet, and stretching away in either direction as far as the eye could reach. In isolated spots grew a few solitary tufts of grass, the necessary moisture for whose sustenance was supplied by infrequent thunder showers. Permanent water there was none, and the sand was heated to such a degree, that a match dropped upon it became instantly ignited. The thermometer on one occasion rose to 153° in the coolest place to be found. In the midst of this sterile tract was a desert of still deeper gloom, which was traced for a distance of eighty miles in one direction, and thirty-five miles in the other. Its surface was paved with a solid bed of dark ironstone, upon which the horses' hoofs rang as upon a metallic floor, but left not the least impression, and in which not the slightest trace of water or vegetation was found.

intellectual vigor. Owing to the dryness of the atmosphere, the absence of marshes, and of rank vegetation, those intermittent fevers and agues are utterly unknown, which "do so shake from their propriety" the settlers in most new countries; and the inhabitants sleep in the open air with the most absolute impunity. The latitude of the colonies corresponds to that of Florida, the Carolinas, and Virginia, but the temperature and productions are varied more by position and elevation than by latitude. The daily range of the thermometer is greater than with us, but the annual range of the mean temperature is much less. Their seasons are the reverse of ours. Dog-days come at Christmas, and mid-winter in July.

Population.—By the census of March, 1851, the population of Australia amounted to 332,000. The discovery of gold* has given a great impulse to emigration, so that the population at present numbers probably over half a million.† The proportion of adult males to females is about two to one.

Political Divisions.—Those portions of Australia which have been settled by emigrants from Great Britain are comprised in three principal colonies, viz., New South Wales, situated upon the eastern shore; Victoria, situated at the southeastern extremity of the island; and South Australia, lying on the southern shore of the island, immediately west of Victoria.

1. New South Wales.—This is the parent-colony, and received its name from Captain Cook, from a fancied resemblance to the southern portion of South Wales of England. Its population in 1851 was 187,000. Among its productions are the cedar, mahogany, tulip-wood, rosewood, ironwood, lightwood, sassafras, corkwood, the Austrian palm, &c., all of which arrive at the greatest perfection. The soil also produces wheat, Indian corn, barley, and the sweet-potato (some specimens of the latter weighing thirty pounds!); while arrow-root, cotton, coffee, tobacco, sugar-cane, and guava, may be profitably grown. The southern portion of the colony consists principally of land in possession of squatters, as they are termed, or proprietors of those immense herds of sheep and cattle, whose produce has till lately formed the staple export of Australia generally. The capital of New South Wales is Sydney.‡

2. Victoria.—This colony was first settled in 1836, forming a part of New South Wales, but was cut off, and erected into a separate colony, in 1841. Its population in 1851 was 78,000. This has been by far the most flourishing of

* Although gold has only so recently been found in large quantities in Australia, rumors of its existence have for several years been prevalent in the colony, and in 1847 specimens were displayed for exhibition. The matter, however, was forgotten till Mr. Hargreaves, in the spring of 1851, struck with the similarity of the soils in California and Australia, went out in search of gold, which he immediately discovered in the Bathurst district, about 120 miles northwest of Sydney, and westward of the Blue mountains. More gold being soon after found in the neighboring creeks, the governor took possession of the whole in the name of the crown; appointed a commissioner to grant licenses, and sent a small body of police to enforce his orders. The price of a license is £1 10s. sterling a month, entitling the holder to about fifteen square feet to labor in. Shortly after, on the banks of the Turon, some miles further north, the celebrated Ophir diggings were discovered—and indeed along nearly the whole range of the Blue mountains gold is supposed to exist. It was at the Ophir diggings that a mass of gold, in a single piece, weighing 100 pounds, and sold for $20,000, was found accidentally by a native black. About this time gold was found in large quantities in Victoria, at a place called Ballarat, about fifty miles west of Port Philip bay, and shortly after a still more productive deposite at Mount Alexander, which, in its turn, has been eclipsed by a new field at Bendigo creek; and no doubt many other gold-beds will be discovered. Indeed, an eminent English geologist estimates the gold-field of Port Philip alone to extend over 120,000 miles, and likely to give an unlimited supply. Prodigious as has been the yield of pure metal hitherto, no quartz-crushing machinery has yet been introduced, though several companies are now forming in London, with a view of exporting all the latest improvements founded on Californian and other experience, and it is anticipated that much larger quantities will then be produced.

† The emigration to Australia, at the present time (1853), from England and the United States, is said to average about 1,000 daily.

‡ The position of Sydney, at the head of the magnificent harbor of Port Jackson, admirably adapts it for the centre of a commercial empire. Its haven, which is about 15 miles long, and in some places 3 miles broad, is completely land-locked. Along the water-side there are wharfs, stores, shipyards, mills, manufactories, &c. Sydney resembles in its rapid growth some of our great western cities, as its population at the present moment can not be less than between 70,000 and 80,000. Intense activity and enterprise mark its inhabitants. It is quite metropolitan in its character, having a magnificent government-house, abundant church accommodations, a beautiful cathedral dedicated to the Roman catholic faith, well-endowed schools (more particularly that of Sydney college), theatres, hotels, and a public pleasure-ground called Hyde Park—to say nothing of the jail. There are also many suburban villages, communicated with by means of stage-coaches and omnibuses.

the Australian colonies, and the richest deposites of gold have also been discovered here. The vine, olive, mulberry, and tobacco, all flourish well. Wheat, oats, barley, potatoes, and maize, are the staple productions. Its exports are principally live stock, salt provisions, skins, tallow, wool, timber, soap, leather, butter, cheese, &c., amounting in value to about $5,000,000 annually. Its capital is Melbourne.*

3. South Australia.—This important section of Australia was settled in 1835. It lies between 26° south latitude and the seacoast, and 132° and 141° east longitude, and occupies an area of 300,000 square miles. Though not a mountainous district, it has sufficient inequalities of surface to redeem it from the character of flat monotony. The general character of the country, unless in the great alluvial plains, which form its surface riches, is that of gently undulating ground, with forest glades and clumps. Thousands of acres have been broken up, from which it has not been found necessary to remove a single tree; and in other parts, where the wood was more abundant, the process of "girdling," or destroying the sap, was found sufficient for bringing the whole field into cultivation the first year, and removing one tree after another at the farmers' leisure. The climate is one of the most genial that is to be found, being a continued succession of spring and summer, for the so-called winter is without frost or snow, and the country is then clothed with verdure and the trees with foliage. There are no endemic diseases, fevers, or agues, and the dry, warm, elastic atmosphere is peculiarly favorable to asthmatic and pulmonary complaints. Wheat, barley, tobacco, the mulberry, and the vine, all thrive greatly: apples, pears, citron, figs, plums, peaches, almonds, oranges, medlars, pine-apples, bananas, guavas, and watermelons are also produced. But the mineral wealth of South Australia is its most remarkable feature, and it is from this source that emigration on a large scale was first attracted to it. Precious stones, lead, and iron, are among its productions. But the copper-mines have proved the most prolific. It has suffered very severely, however, from speculations in copper mines, as many of them have proved unsuccessful. The discoveries of gold in the neighboring colony of Victoria, have likewise proved injurious to South Australia, drawing away a considerable share of its population. It is not known that any gold has been discovered in this colony. Its population in 1851 was 67,000. The capital is Adelaide,† lying on the Torrens river, about six miles from the east coast of St. Vincent's gulf.

In addition to these colonies, an unsuccessful attempt was made in 1829 to found the colony of Western Australia or Swan river, on the western shore. There are said to be some 10,000 inhabitants in this unfortunate district. The name of Northern Australia has been vaguely bestowed upon the whole central and northern parts of the island; but no permanent settlements have as yet been formed there.

Government.—The elective franchise is vested in every male (unconvicted of crime) having a freehold estate worth $500, or occupying a house worth $50, or holding a pasture-license, after a six months' residence in all cases. The legislative council consists of a governor (nominated by the crown), and a

* Melbourne, at the farther end of the land-locked bay of Port Philip, has a population approaching to 50,000, and is partly built of brick and partly of granite. It has a courthouse, custom-house, two banks, cattle, hay, and corn markets, and episcopalian, presbyterian, Roman catholic, methodist, independent, and congregational houses of worship. Steamboats ply daily to the neighboring ports, and at intervals to Sydney and Hobart Town. Across the safe and capacious bay is the rapidly rising town of Geelong, to which a steamboat runs.

† The situation of Adelaide is very beautiful; the eastern terrace, which is the favorite spot for villa residences, commands an extensive view of rich plains, backed by the Mount Lofty range. The city is surrounded by a park about 500 yards wide; the streets are spacious, laid out at right angles, and varied by six squares, and other pieces of land reserved for ornamental purposes. There are several excellent public buildings and useful institutions. Population, about 10,000. The port of Adelaide is a secure but a barred harbor, six miles distant to which a railroad is being constructed. Around Adelaide are scattered various villages, with from 100 to 300 inhabitants, one of which, Klemzing, a German settlement, is described as being so purely national, that the inhabitants might have been supposed to have brought it over from Prussia.

number of members according to the population, two thirds of whom are electoral, and one third nominated by the governor or the home government. The council must meet at least once a year, and their duration of office is limited to five years. They are empowered to make laws "for the peace, welfare and good government" of the colonies, and to appropriate the revenues from taxes and rates. Every bill has to receive the governor's assent, and may be disallowed within two years by the sovereign. Perfect religious toleration is a fundamental principal in these colonies, protestants and Roman catholics equally receiving grants from the public revenues, while the title of the Roman catholic prelates is officially acknowledged in this part only of the British dominions. There are plenty of good free schools accessible to all, and it may be safely stated that these offshoots are already a quarter of a century ahead of the mother-country in those two essential requisites to a really free state. The press, too, is entirely unshackled, having no stamp, paper or advertisement duty, as in the old country—no censorship in the shape of tax.

History.—The colonization of Australia by the British stands in close contact with the war which lost them the thirteen American colonies. The outlet for the banishment of their criminal population being closed, it became a problem how to get rid of its annual accumulation of villany. Captain Cook had recently made some explorations in Australia, and it was finally resolved to make that island a penal colony. Accordingly, in the spring of 1787, a small fleet, under the command of Captain Charles Philip, afterward first governor, sailed, having on board 757 convicts—565 male and 192 female—which number, by the addition of officials, crew, and military guard, was augmented to 1,000 persons. The vessels anchored at Port Jackson, the harbor of Sydney, and thus the seeds of a future empire were planted in January, 1788. The colony at first was unsuccessful enough, and was more than once reduced to the verge of starvation, being dependent for food upon supplies from the parent-country. Of its moral and social state it is enough to state, that eighteen years after its first foundation the current coin of the capital was rum, and that of the births two thirds were illegitimate. In the meantime free settlers, under the liberal inducements held out by government, began to arrive in Australia. This voluntary immigration, with the introduction of flocks and herds (for which a large part of the land of Australia was peculiarly adapted), was destined to effect a great change in Australian society. The number of free immigrants soon greatly exceeded that of the convicts; and of the latter not a few retrieved their character in the new circumstances in which they were placed.* The convicts now sent are all placed on Norfolk island,† situated about 900 miles northwest of Sydney, and the original settlement has passed through the second stage of its development, and from a penal settlement become a land of freemen.

Van Diemen's Island or Tasmania.—This fine island is situated at the southeast extremity of Australia, from which it is separated by a channel 500 miles long by 150 broad, called Bass strait. It lies 41° 20′ and 43° 40′ south

* During a period of forty-eight years, the number of convicts sent to New South Wales was, of males, 43,506, of females, 6,791: total, 50,297. This is exclusive of convicts sent to Van Diemen's island, to which separate transportation commenced in 1817, and from that year to 1837 the number of convicts sent to that island was, males, 24,785, females, 2,974: total, 27,759; making a grand total deported to Australasia during the period, of males, 68,291, females, 9,765. Transportation to New South Wales ceased in the year 1840. There is probably not one convict in New South Wales at the present time.

† Norfolk Island, the present penal settlement of New South Wales and of Van Diemen's island, is in 39° south latitude, 168° east longitude, about five miles long by three miles broad, and with only one anchorage (Sydney bay) tolerably safe at some seasons. The surface resembles the sea in a gale of wind, being composed of long, narrow, and very steep ranges of hills, with deep gullies, which are as narrow at the bottom as the hills are at the top, so that there is but little level country. The soil, however, is remarkably good, and the celebrated pine (*araucaria excelsa*) was found in great numbers when the British government first occupied the island, in 1790, as a place where food might be cultivated for the then famishing colony at Sydney, New South Wales. Some pines were 150 to 200 feet high, 28 to 30 feet in circumference, very straight, and free from branches from 40 to 60 feet above the ground.

latitude, and 144° 40′ and 148° 20′ east longitude. Its superficial area is about 24,000 square miles. The aspect of Tasmania, when viewed from the sea, is very picturesque, presenting a succession of lofty mountains, wooded to their very summits. The northern shores present a line of low sandy beaches, broken by rocky headlands, on which the surf breaks with great violence during the prevalence of northerly winds; the other portions of the coast are mostly high and rocky, though abounding in safe harbors. The general face of the interior is mountainous, presenting a constant alternation of hill and dale, varied by lofty table-land, and extensive valleys and plains, which are in general thinly wooded and extremely fertile. The climate is salubrious, and not subject to extremes of heat and cold; the atmosphere is pure, and the sky unclouded. Its staple products are wool, grain, cattle, sheep, oil, timber, and potash. The white population is about 70,000, of whom one fourth are convicts, under sentence of transportation. About two thirds of the people are engaged in agriculture; the remainder in commerce, arts, and manufactures. Hobart Town, the capital, is extensive, well laid out, and neatly built. It occupies a commanding position on the left bank of the river Derwent, about twenty miles above its junction with the sea, at the head of a beautiful cove or bay, which affords good and secure anchorage for the largest fleet. The government is administered by a lieutenant-governor, assisted by an executive and legislative council. Its population is about 22,000. The honor of the discovery belongs to Tasman, the famous Dutch navigator, who visited its southern shores in 1642, and named it after Anthony Van Diemen, then governor-general of the Dutch possessions in the East Indies. Formal possession was taken of Tasmania by England in 1803, for the purpose of forming a penal settlement there. In 1813 merchant-vessels were allowed to trade to the ports of Tasmania; in 1819 the settlement of free emigrants was sanctioned; and in 1825 the island was separated from New South Wales, to which it had been attached, and formed into a distinct government.

New Zealand.—This extensive and valuable group of islands is situated in the Southern Pacific ocean, between 34° and 48° south latitude, and 166° and 179° east longitude, about 1,200 miles southeast of New South Wales and Van Diemen's island, and 5,000 miles from the west coast of America. The three principal islands (Northern, Middle, and Southern) of the New Zealand group extend over a range of fourteen degrees. The area is estimated at 122,582 square miles.

Physical Aspect.—A chain of lofty mountains, of which some peaks rise, it is estimated, 12,000 to 14,000 feet above the level of the sea, extends along the Middle island from south to north, and is continued to some extent through the Northern island, forming what is termed the "backbone" of the country, in connection with numerous subordinate ranges of hills. The whole mass is covered, for the greater part, to the verge of perpetual snow, with lofty timber and vegetation, intersected by various streams and cascades, presenting, from many points of view, a striking and grand panorama. Cook's straits separate the Northern from the Middle island. They abound in good harbors, but the weather is said to be tempestuous and uncertain. Cloudy bay is an arm of the sea, running like a broad river for many miles among the mountains, and connecting the bay with Queen Charlotte's sound. Foveaux straits separate the Middle island from the Southern, sometimes called Stewart's island or New Leinster. Of the interior of the islands we as yet know comparatively little. The Hurunui plain, 25 miles long by 15 broad, containing 380 square miles, and that of Waianua, double the size, is so remarkably level, and hemmed in by hills and mountains, as to look like the dry bed of a lake. Grass, knee-deep, abounds everywhere on these plains, and there are very few swampy patches.

The soil is deep, of excellent quality, and ready for the plough. The country around, and to the northward, presents a succession of plain and mountain. The climate is constantly humid, but the temperature on the coasts is very equable.

Population.—The number of British settlers, including some Americans, Germans, and French, in the three islands, is about 20,000; the natives are estimated at 120,000. They are of the Malay race, of a copper color, with massive features; bold, manly, quickly educated, and capable of a high degree of civilization. They generally live in fortified villages, on high hills, which can be ascended only by narrow, steep, and winding paths.

Religion.—The European population possess ministers and places of worship, according to their different denominations. There are a number of missionary stations; and considerable has been done in the diffusion of Christianity among the aborigines, who have abandoned the most revolting of their customs.

Government.—The islands are divided into two separate provinces; the Northern island is termed New Ulster, the Middle, New Munster. There is a lieutenant-governor over the latter residing at Wellington, and a governor-in-chief over the whole, who resides in the Northern island at Auckland,* and is aided by a general council, composed of persons nominated by the crown. The lieutenant-governor of New Munster has a local legislative council.

History.—One of the islands was discovered by Tasman, the Dutch navigator, in 1642, who supposed the land he saw belonged to a great southern continent. Little more was known until Captain Cook, in 1769–'70, visited the east coast of the north island, and took nominal possession of the territory for his sovereign. After this period the islands were greatly resorted to by whaleships, and became a refuge for runaway-convicts from Australia. In 1814 Christian missionaries began to visit New Zealand, with a view to the conversion of a fine race of aborigines by whom they are inhabited. In 1839, the New Zealand Company commenced a systematic effort for the occupation of the island: the sovereignty of England was proclaimed in February, 1840, over the Northern island, and the whole territory is now claimed as an integral portion of the British empire. In 1848 there were on the New Zealand islands nine principal European settlements, besides smaller dependencies. The principal are Auckland, Wellington, Nelson, Russell, New Plymouth, Otago, and Akaroa. These settlements are scattered over a distance of 800 miles, separated from each other by wide intervals, and intercommunication, even for persons on horseback, exists only between three of the settlements.

New Guinea.—This island lies between the equator and 10° south latitude, and 131° and 149° east longitude. It is separated from Australia on the south by Torres straits. It is of irregular form, indented with deep bays. Its superficial area is about 250,000 square miles. It is very mountainous, more particularly about the northern coast. The interior is almost unknown, but the forests of palms and other lofty trees afford a proof of the fertility of the soil. The people are of the Papuan or Malaysian negro race, and are described as hideously ugly—with large eyes, flat noses, thin lips, woolly hair, and black, shiny skin; by way of ornament, they pass bones or pieces of wood through the cartilage of the nose, and entangle their curly locks, like a mop, to an immense size—they build habitations, and wear wrappers around the waist. It is said that there are miserable Haraforos in the interior who live in trees, but who cultivate the ground, and bring their produce to the coast. The trade of the

* Auckland, the capital of New Zealand, is in latitude 36° 51′ south, longitude 175° 45′ east. The town is situated on an undulating open space, about two and a half miles from the heads or entrance of the harbor. Over this plain there are to be seen at least twenty flat-topped craters of extinct volcanoes. The church is a conspicuous object from the sea. Many of the houses are well-built, and the stores in Shortland-crescent are respectable. The population is about 3,500. The climate, soil, and harbor, are good.

coast is monopolized by the Ceramese (from Ceram, a neighboring island), who have inspired the natives with a hatred to all other foreigners; and they obtain for a nominal price, massoy-bark, nutmegs, trepany, tortoise-shell, pearls, edible birds'-nests, birds-of-paradise, and other articles. The inhabitants of Borneo and Celebres often make inroads upon the people, and carry them off as slaves.

New Hebrides.—The New Hebrides, or Archipelago of the Great Cyclades, are situated between 14° 10′ and 20° south latitude, and were explored by Cook, in 1774, who gave them their name. They are generally mountainous, well-wooded, and watered. The largest, Terra del Espiritu Santo, was supposed, when discovered by Quiros, in 1606, to be part of a great southern continent. It is 70 miles long by 40 miles broad, sloping on the north coast, but on the east side exceedingly high and mountainous: in many place the hills rise directly from the sea, clothed with verdure and forests; the small islets skirting the coast are clothed as in other parts of Polynesia, with palmiferous vegetation. The large bay of St. Philip and St. Jago is in 14° 55′ south, and 167° 3′ east. In many of the islands there are a fine race; but at Mallicollo, they are described by Cook as the most ugly, ill-proportioned people he ever met with, having long heads, flat faces, and ape-like countenances. Pigs and poultry abound; yams grow to a great size, and sometimes weigh fifty pounds.

New Caledonia.—This island, lying between 19° 37′ and 22° 30′ south latitude, and 163° 37′ and 167° 14′ east longitude, is 240 miles long by 30 miles broad; in general it is mountainous, except to the northeast, and has a bleak and barren appearance. It is comparatively thickly inhabited by a people who live on vegetable food, fish, and birds; quadrupeds, even dogs or cats, being unknown. The natives are affable, honest, and speak a language totally dissimilar from that of the other islands in the Pacific.

Solomon Islands.—These islands lie between 5° and 10° south latitude and 155° and 160° east longitude, and are peopled by a black race, who go entirely naked, and live in a state of continual warfare. We know nothing of the country, which is covered with dense vegetation. Bougainville's islands belong to this group.

New Britain, New Ireland, New Hanover, &c.—The extent of these groups is not known; they lie between 2° and 6° south latitude, and probably contain an area of 10,000 square miles. They are low, thickly wooded, and peopled by a black, woolly-headed race, who move about in canoes ninety feet in length, formed out of a single tree. New Britain, about 280 miles long, by 8 to 30 miles broad, is of unsurpassed beauty. In shape it is an extended semicircle. The land rises with a gentle ascent, shaded by umbrageous forests, or small oases of palms, and other umbelliferous trees in groups. The shores are indented with small bays, with estuaries or creeks of fresh water. New Ireland is about 200 miles long, by 8 to 20 miles broad; the centre, like New Britain, formed by a chain of mountains, evidently of volcanic origin. It is prolific in its vegetable productions, and well-peopled. New Hanover is 28 miles long by 12 broad; mountainous and well-wooded: it is separated from New Ireland by a strait six miles wide. The seas around are studded with islets. The Admiralty Islands, to the northwest of New Ireland, are clothed with luxuriant verdure, well-cultivated, and peopled by a fine race, who have advanced to a higher degree of civilization than their neighbors.

POLYNESIA.

That large portion of the globe between the tropics of Cancer and of Capricorn, or indeed it may be said for thirty degrees north and south of the equator (a distance of 3,600 miles), and from the meridian of Japan to that of California, is studded with islands of all sizes and shapes, some in groups, others isolated, some of volcanic origin, others of coralline formation, and yearly increased by the unseen but incessant labor of zoophites; all of singular beauty, clothed with the richest vegetation, in a generally tranquil ocean, with a warm yet salubrious clime, and peopled by various races, most of them in a state of barbarism; among whom Christian missionaries are now, with zeal and success, pursuing their pious labors. The numerous islands embraced in this portion of the globe are mostly collected in groups, yet many are scattered and isolated in the vast expanse of ocean. The following classification includes them all:—The Bonin or Arzobispo islands; the Ladrone or Marian islands; the Caroline islands; the Pelew islands; the Fejee islands; the Friendly islands; Navigator's or Samoa islands; Cook's or the Hervey islands; the Society and Georgian islands; Pitcairn's island; the Marquesas or Washington islands; the Hawaiian or Sandwich islands; and the scattered and isolated islands.

The Bonin Islands.—These are a group of ninety islands, lying between 24° and 30° north latitude and 140° and 150° east longitude. On some of these Japanese and British subjects have settled, who carry on a contraband trade with Japan, or engage in the whale fishery. East of this group are scattered the islands of Magellan's Archipelago, and southeast are a number of volcanic islands.

The Marian or Ladrones.—This group lies between 11° and 21° north latitude, upon the meridian of 140° east longitude. They are very numerous, and somewhat resemble the Philippine islands. They are of volcanic origin.

The Caroline Islands.—These islands are about thirty in number, and lie between 6° and 10° north latitude and 136° and 156° east longitude. They are little known; the country and the people are said to resemble the Philippines.

The Pelew Islands.—These islands, about ten in number, are situated between 6° 54′ and 8° 12′ north latitude, and 134° 5′ and 136° 40′ east longitude. They are mountainous, with beautiful valleys and a fertile soil. The inhabitants are numerous, of a copper color, with long black soft hair.

The Fejee Islands.—These islands are situated between 15° and 20° south latitude, and the meridian of 180° east longitude passes through the centre of the group. They consist of two large, two small, and fifteen smaller, besides numerous islets and coral rocks. The principal islands are inhabited by a race of negroes, resembling the Haraforos of Malaysia.

The Friendly Islands.—These islands lie between 20° and 21° south latitude, are low, and highly-cultivated. Tongataboo, in 21° 9′ south latitude, and 174° 46′ west longitude, about 60 miles in circumference, level, and 70 to 80 feet above the sea, is the chief island, and thickly peopled. Almost every individual wants the little finger of one or of both hands, which indicates grief for some deceased person. Idolatry, human immolations, and cannibalism prevail. The Tonga islands present similar features to the preceding.

Navigators' Islands.—These islands lie northeast of the Fejee and the Friendly islands, between 160° and 170° west longitude. They are in some instances lofty, of great fertility, and populous; the men are powerful and quarrelsome, the women graceful and profligate. The largest island of this group is 350 miles in circumference.

Cook's or Hervey Islands.—This group lies to the eastward of the Friendly islands, between latitude 18° and 23° south; access to them is difficult owing to coral reefs. They are highly cultivated; in Roratonga, where there are 7,000 inhabitants, the greater number have embraced Christianity.

The Society Islands.—The Society islands, so named by Captain Cook, in honor of the Royal Society, are an extensive group between 15° and 23° south latitude; the scenery is described by Cook, Ellis, and others, as of the most magnificent description—a combination of land and water, precipices and plains, mountains and valleys—with a fertile soil and luxuriant vegetation, matured by the genial heat of a tropical clime. A part of the Society islands are sometimes designated as the Georgian Islands, and were so named by Captain Cook, in honor of George III., the patron of the expedition. The same features, in both the people and the physical aspect, characterize the islands. The Georgians include Tahiti or Otaheite, Eimeo, Tabuuemanu, Tetuoroa, Matea, and Meetia. The Society islands are, Huahine, Raiatea, Tahaa, Borabora, Maurua, Tubai, Moupiha, and Fenuarua. Tahiti or Otaheite, the principal island and residence of the queen, lies in 17° 48′ south latitude, and 150° west longitude, is 120 miles in circumference, of a double peninsular shape, and appears like enchanted ground, from its singular wildness and beauty. The inhabitants are a fine race, generally above the middle stature, with bold and sometimes prominent features; the facial angle frequently as perpendicular as in the European structure. The women are considered handsome, and have prepossessing manners. Tahiti has about 10,000 inhabitants, and the other islands of the group perhaps an equal number. In 1818, Pomare I. became a convert to Christianity, and established a constitutional government over the islands which still exists in a modified form. In 1840, the French government coveting the islands and desiring to make them colonial dependencies, commenced their aggressions under a false pretence, and finally after much opposition succeeded, and Queen Pomare is now a dependant of the French crown.

Pitcairn's Island.—This island was peopled by the English seamen who mutinied in the British ship Bounty, Captain Bligh, and landed on this island with their Otaheitean wives. It is in 24° 5′ south latitude, and 130° 25′ west longitude, about six miles long by three miles broad, with a rich soil and delightful climate. It has an "iron-bound coast," and landing is difficult. John Adams, the leader of the mutineers, became a truly penitent Christian, and the patriarch of the little community, among whom he diffused religion and morality, which has been transmitted to the colony which he founded. The sabbath is strictly observed; the islanders assemble every morning at sunrise, in their church, to pray, and their conduct has gained them the respect of every one who has visited the island.

The Marquesas or Washington Islands.—This group lies between 8° and 10° south latitude, and 139° and 140° west longitude. They have a bold and rugged aspect. The land is high, and of volcanic origin. The level districts yield, in abundance, tropical produce; the inhabitants, of a bright brown, like the natives of Malabar, exhibit perfect symmetry of form, with regular features, fine black eyes, good teeth, and a frank and open countenance.

The Sandwich Islands.*—The Hawaiian or Sandwich islands are a splendid group lying in the North Pacific, and stretching from 18° 50′ to 22° 20′ north latitude, and 154° 53′ to 163° 15′ west longitude. The group consists of twelve islands, of which the following table gives the names, extent, and area of the more important ones :—

Islands.	Length.	Breadth.	Square miles.	Islands.	Length.	Breadth.	Sq. miles.
Hawaii	88	73	4,000	Molokai	40	7	190
Maui	48	30	620	Oahu	46	25	530
Kahoolawe	11	8	60	Kauai	22	24	500
Lanai	17	9	100	Niihau	20	7	90

Bird island is a barren rock, visited by immense numbers of birds. Molokini, Lehua, and Kaula, are all rocky islets, visited by fishermen, and uninhabited.

Physical Aspect.—These islands are, like most of the principal groups in the Pacific, of volcanic origin, their precipitous and towering cliffs sometimes overhanging the sea at a height of from 500 to 1,000 and even to 4,000 feet, here and there broken by wild ravines, down which mountain streams leap hundreds of feet, and are broken into spray before they reach the bottom. Hawaii, the largest of the group, presents some of the grandest scenery in the Pacific ; while the greatest volcano in the world, Kilauea, which is situated at a height of 10,000 feet above the sea, is in a state of constant activity. Mouna Loa and Mauna Kea, the two principal peaks of the island, reach a height of 14,000 feet, on the side of the former of which the crater is situated. The crater is an immense basin, from one to two miles in diameter, seven in circumference, and about 1,500 feet deep. Several extensive eruptions have occurred since the discovery of the islands, and the last, of February, 1852, poured its streams of lava down the mountain for thirty days, filling valleys 200 feet deep, and illuminating the sky so that at midnight books could be read at a distance of thirty or forty miles. The soil of the islands consists of decomposed volcanic rocks, sand, mud, and ashes, which, to be made fertile, requires constant irrigation.

Climate.—The climate is salubrious, and remarkably even. Situated in the midst of the Pacific, the heat of the sun is mitigated by the ocean breezes, and the shores on either side show but little difference in the temperature. On the highest mountains snow remains part of the year, and in a few situations throughout the whole. No snow falls at Oahu, but on the uplands of Kauai snow and hail sometimes occur. At Honolulu,† on Oahu, the range of the thermometer is about 12° per diem. The greatest degree of heat for twelve years, in the shade, was 90°, and 53° the coldest ; the mean about 73°.

Productive Resources.—The principal article of food is the *kalo*.‡ The banana, yam, sweet-potato, bread-fruit, cocoa-nut, arrow-root, sugar-cane, strawberry, raspberry, ohelo (a berry), and ohia (an apple), are plentiful. Many fruits and vegetables have been introduced, viz., melons, limes, oranges, guavas, pine-apples, grapes, peaches, figs, citrons, and tamarinds. On Maui potatoes are raised of a large size. Wheat is successfully grown in the islands. Coffee, cotton, indigo, mulberry, &c., are more or less raised, and require only culture and skill to make them valuable staples.

* See map, on page 41.

† Honolulu, the principal commercial port of the islands, is situated on the south side of Oahu, and contains about 6,000 to 8,000 inhabitants. It stands on a low, flat plain, behind which the hills rise to a considerable height. The houses are generally low, one story high, and built of *adobes*, or wet soil mixed with dry grass, and moulded into blocks eighteen inches or two feet long, a foot wide, and six to eight inches thick. There are several churches in the town, and periodicals in Hawaiian and English are published here. The towns of Honolulu, and Lahaina, on Maui, are visited by the whaling fleets of the Pacific for supplies, where they are furnished abundantly with fruit and vegetables. There is a fort at Honolulu, furnished with fifty-two guns, commanding the channel and inner harbor. On Punch-Bowl hill, not far to the right, there is a battery of fourteen guns, at an elevation of 550 feet above the sea. Here are the government-houses, custom-house, and public buildings, which, with the Roman catholic cathedral, and some of the warehouses, are built of coral rock. The position of the islands being nearly midway between the two continents, Honolulu is destined to become the great entrepôt between San Francisco, Oregon, and the Asiatic continent.

‡ The *kalo* is a delicious esculent, which is prepared in various ways for food, the most common being in the form of *poe* ; the vegetable is boiled until it resembles a paste, when it is eaten by dipping the forefinger into the dish, twirling it until covered with the *poe*, and thus conveying it to the mouth.

Population.—Captain Cook estimated the population at about 400,000, which was probably too large. The latest census gave about 90,000, or a little less than one fourth, showing a decrease of 75 per cent. in sixty years. There is no doubt that the race is much diminished, and fears are entertained that it will die out, though the reports for 1852 show a slight increase in the births over the deaths. The people are now fast approaching a position of civilized comfort and intelligence.

History.—These islands were not certainly known to the civilized world until their discovery by Captain Cook. It is thought that some one of the early Spanish navigators may have become acquainted with them, but who or at what precise time is unknown. Lord Anson is also believed to have known of their existence; but as he gave no description, it is universally conceded that the honor of discovery belongs to Captain Cook, who reached Kauai on the 19th of January, 1778. After a short stay he sailed for the northwest coast of America, and returned on the 27th of November. On Sunday, February 14th, 1779, the fatal encounter occurred which deprived science and the world of the services of this distinguished man. At the time of Cook's visit, Kamehameha, a young man of humble origin, was just attracting notice by his achievements, and he so rapidly advanced as to become the master of Hawaii, and in a few years brought the whole group under his sway, and thus consolidated a government which had until then been divided between the rulers of the several islands. He was a firm friend of the white man, earnestly devoted to the progress of his people, and zealous in promoting their civilization. Had he thrown off his superstition, and Christianity been introduced, doubtless he would have advanced them fifty years in their progress. He died without any knowledge of Christianity, on the 11th of May, 1819, and his son became king. March 30, 1820, the first family of missionaries landed on the islands, and began the work of civilizing and educating the people. They reduced the language to writing, established presses, schools, and churches, and after a period of only thirty-three years, as large a proportion of the people can read and write as in the United States. The political constitution of the islands has been undergoing a constant melioration since 1820. The tyranny and absolutism of the chiefs have given way to a constitution and code, which have been several times revised, and on the 8th of December, 1852, the latest revision was proclaimed to the people. It has been recognised as an independent power by the United States and the principal governments of Europe. The king (Kamehameha III.) and chiefs have proposed to apply for admission into the American Union, as a guaranty against subjugation and oppression by the French.

The Scattered Islands.—Scattered and isolated islands are found on almost every portion of the Pacific ocean. Their general character is the same as that of those already described. Among them may be named Bird's Isle, Necker, Basse Française, Gardner, Two Brothers' Rock, Maro Reef, Laysan, Lisianski, Philadelphia, Pearl and Hermes Bank, Cure, Byers, Patrocinio, Morell, Roco de Plata, Crespo, Roco de Oro of the Spaniards, Roco de Oro or Lot's Wife, Colunas, Ganges, Week's Reef, Krusenstern Rock (to the southwest of Laysan), Mellish Bank (north of Byers), Howland, Arthur, Kemin's, Jervis, Birney, Phœnix, Sydney, Duke of York's, Duke of Clarence's, Solitaria, Danger or St. Bernardo, Duke Alexander I., Humphrey, Suvarof, Peregrino, Penrhyn, Woodstock, Caroline, New York, Starbuck, Volunteer, Maldon, Brook, Bunker, Christmas, Palmyra, Austral, Fanning, Walker's, Smith's, Oeno, Gambier, Elizabeth, Ducie's, Easter, Sala-y-Gomez, Waihou.

APPENDIX

A GENERAL VIEW OF ASTRONOMY.

Among the different branches of science within the compass of human acquirements, few unite greater importance and utility than that which explains the phenomena of the earth; or more pleasure than that which traces the evolutions of those immense orbs that decorate the heavens, and investigates the unerring laws by which they are regulated and governed.

The origin of Astronomy commences its date with that of agriculture and society itself. It is, however, to the improvements of the immediately preceding and present age, that we are principally indebted for the high state of astronomical science we are enjoying. The first astronomer, so far as we know, who attempted to make a catalogue of the stars, was Hipparchus, of Rhodes, who flourished about 120 years B. C. Having observed a new star which he had never seen before, he began to doubt whether there might not be changes occasionally taking place among these luminaries, and therefore commenced making a catalogue of them, noting down the position and magnitude of each star, with the view, that if any new star should again appear, or any of those observed by him should increase or be diminished in magnitude, or totally disappear, such changes might be known to those who should live in future ages. This catalogue, which was handed down to us by Ptolemy, an ancient Egyptian astronomer, has been of special use to modern astronomers, both in determining the precession of the equinoxes, and in proving that certain stars which then existed are no longer to be seen in the heavens; thus indicating that changes and revolutions are taking place among the distant bodies of the universe. The catalogue of Hipparchus contained a description of the places of 1,026 stars. The Arabians are the next whom history represents as having attempted to form a descriptive catalogue of the stars. This was done by Ulug Beigh, the grandson of Tamerlane, from observations made at Samarcand, whose catalogue describes 1,022 stars. Tycho Brahe, the celebrated Danish astronomer, who lived in the sixteenth century, by means of the large and accurate instruments he invented, catalogued 777 stars, considered to be superior in correctness to his predecessors. He was prompted to this by the appearance of a new star in Cassiopeia, in 1572, which shone with the brilliancy of Venus, and was visible at noonday. Bayer soon after published a catalogue of 1,160 stars, in which he introduced the practice of distinguishing the stars by the Greek alphabet. All these catalogues preceded the invention of the telescope, and contained nearly all those which could be seen by the unassisted eye. After the telescope was invented Hebelius catalogued 1,888 stars, of which 1,553 were observed by himself, and their places computed for the year 1660. Modern astronomers catalogue many thousands of stars, beside nebulæ, double, triple, and quadruple stars, &c.

Among the innumerable bodies that appear in the heavens the Sun claims our first consideration. To give the reader an idea of the magnitude of this immense body we observe, that if its centre coincided with the centre of the Earth, it would fill the whole orbit of the Moon, and its surface would extend as far again. Again, if we suppose the Earth to be represented by a ball one inch in diameter, the Sun would be represented by a ball *nine feet* in diameter: or, the Sun is as large as 1,295,029 bodies of the size of the Earth. The Sun is situated near the centre of the orbits of all the planets, and revolves on its axis in 25 days, 14 hours, 8 minutes. This revolution is determined from the motion of certain spots on its surface, which first appear on its eastern extremity, then advance toward the middle, and at length on the western edge, where they disappear. When they have been absent nearly as long as they were visible, they reappear as at first, finishing their entire circuit in 27 days, 12 hours, 20 minutes. The Earth moving in its orbit during the time, in the same direction, makes a return of a given spot of the Sun's surface longer than a revolution of that body upon its axis.

To an observer placed on the Sun, all the planets and fixed stars will appear to revolve from east to west in 25½ of our days, nearly, exclusive of the motion which the planets have in their orbits. On the Earth, however, the phenomena are different. From this point of view the planets, instead of the regularity above noticed, will sometimes appear to move toward the east, at other times toward the west, and again to remain stationary. Let a body revolve in the circumference of a circle, and move through equal arcs in equal times, and let an eye in the plane of this circle view the moving body from a position without the circle, it will readily be perceived that the motion will be neither direct nor uniform, but such as we have already stated. Hence these phenomena prove that the planets do not regard the Earth as their centre of revolution.

THE SOLAR SYSTEM.

Of all the planets MERCURY is nearest to the Sun, and the least of those whose magnitudes are accurately known. Its periodical revolution round the Sun occupies 87 days, 23 hours, 15 minutes, 43 seconds. Its greatest elongation is 28 degrees, 20 minutes, and least 17 degrees, 36 minutes. Its distance from the Sun is 35,933,620 miles, and its diameter 3,224 miles. It emits a brilliant white light, and twinkles like the fixed stars.

VENUS, the next planet in order, offers the same phenomena as Mercury, with this difference, that its phases are much more sensible, its oscillations or elongations much more extensive, and their period more considerable. Her orbit including that of Mercury, her periodic time is therefore greater. According to the latest and best observations it has a diameter of 7,164 miles, and performs a revolution round the Sun at the distance of 68,000,000 miles. The sidereal revolution of Venus round the Sun is 224 days, 16 hours, 49 minutes, 10 seconds. It revolves on its axis in 23 hours, 20 minutes. The mean length of its entire oscillation is 584 days. Here it may be asked, why Venus remains a longer time to the eastward or westward of the Sun than the whole time of her entire revolution; but when we consider that the relative motion of Venus is greater than her absolute motion, because while Venus is moving around the Sun the Earth is performing its motion around the Sun in the same way, the question is easily answered.

The apparent diameter of Venus continually varies, which proves that her distance is variable also. Her distance from the Earth being the least at the moment of her transit over the Sun's disk, her apparent diameter will then be the greatest, and will decrease until she arrives at her superior conjunction, where her apparent diameter will be the least. As she proceeds her apparent diameter increases till she arrives at her inferior conjunction, where it is again the greatest. When viewed with a telescope, Venus exhibits all the phases of the Moon. Previous to the rising of the Sun in the morning, when she begins to disengage herself from the Sun's rays, she is seen under the form of a crescent, at which time her apparent diameter is a maximum. The transits of Venus over the Sun's disk are among the most interesting phenomena in astronomy, not only from the rarity of their occurrence, but from the important determinations to which they lead.

The next planet in the solar system is our own EARTH, which revolves around the Sun in 365 days, 5 hours, 48 minutes, at the distance of 96,000,000 miles from that luminary, and

around its own axis in 24 hours. Its diameter is 7,912 miles. While the Earth is revolving around the Sun it is accompanied by the Moon, which moves around the earth in 27 days, 7 hours, 43 minutes, at the distance of 240,000 miles.

The planet MARS is 4,189 miles in diameter, and revolves around the Sun in 686 days, 28 hours, 18 minutes, at the distance of 144,000,000 miles. He is remarkable for the red color of his light, the brightness of his polar regions, and the great number and variety of spots which mark his surface.

The planet CERES, which is situated between the orbits of Mars and Jupiter, was discovered at Palermo, in Sicily, on the 1st of January, 1801. It is of a ruddy color, and appears about the size of a star of the eighth magnitude. Ceres performs her revolution around the Sun in 1,680 days, and her mean distance from that body is nearly 260,000,000 miles. The observations which have been hitherto made upon this body, do not seem sufficiently correct to enable us to determine its magnitude with any degree of accuracy.

The planet PALLAS was discovered on the 28th of March, 1802. It is situated between the orbits of Mars and Jupiter, and is nearly of the same magnitude with Ceres, but of a less ruddy color. It is distinguished in a very remarkable manner from Ceres, and from all other primary planets, by the great inclination of its orbit. From the eccentricity of Pallas being greater than that of Ceres, or from a difference of position in the line of their apsides, while their mean distances are nearly equal, the orbits of these two planets mutually intersect each other; a phenomenon altogether anomalous in the solar system. There are two other small planets between the orbits of Mars and Jupiter, namely, JUNO and VESTA.

The planet JUPITER is 89,170 miles in diameter. He turns around his axis in 9 hours, 55 minutes, 37 seconds, and performs his periodical revolution in 4,330 days, 14 hours, 39 minutes, at the distance of 490,000,000 miles. His form, like that of the Earth, is an oblate spheroid, the equatorial being to the polar diameter as 14 to 13. When Jupiter is viewed through a good telescope he is seen to be surrounded by belts, parallel to his equator. Jupiter has four satellites accompanying him, which may in general be seen with a telescope which magnifies thirty times.

The planet SATURN is 79,042 miles in diameter, and revolves around the Sun in 10,746 days, 19 hours, 16 seconds, at the distance of 900,000,000 miles. He is distinguished from all the other planets by a double ring surrounding his body. This ring casts a deep shadow upon the planet, and appears more luminous than Saturn himself. He is surrounded also by seven satellites, so small, however, and so far distant from the Earth, as only to be seen by the aid of an excellent telescope.

From the inequalities in the motion of Jupiter and Saturn, which could not be accounted for from the mutual action of these planets, it was inferred by astronomers that there existed another planet beyond the orbit of Saturn, by whose action these irregularities were produced. This conjecture was confirmed by the discovery of Herschel, or Uranus, by Dr. Herschel. This planet is situated at the distance of 1,800,000,000 miles from the Sun, and performs a revolution around that luminary in 83 years, 150 days, 18 hours. Its diameter is about 35,112 miles. It is accompanied by six satellites, all of which were discovered by Dr. Herschel.

From the same inequalities above-mentioned, astronomers have concluded that another planet existed beyond Herschel, and the telescope has lately revealed the fact. The dimensions and distance from the Sun of this planet (Neptune) have not yet been satisfactorily determined, but the best estimates give the diameter at 42,000 miles, distance from the Sun, 2,854,000,000 miles, and revolution around it 164 years and 226 days.

FIXED STARS.—From the most accurate observations, the whole diameter of the Earth's orbit, which may be put at 195,000,000 miles, as seen from the fixed stars, is found to dwindle into a point; they must therefore be immensely distant from us. From this circumstance, and that when examined with the most powerful telescopes, their disks appear but as luminous points, it is reasonably inferred that their magnitudes must be very great, and that they shine by their own, and not by reflected light. Whether they have planets revolving around them, as our Sun has, is a question that can not be satisfactorily answered. Analogy would lead us to suppose the affirmative.

The mode of ascertaining the distance of the fixed stars is by calculating the angle, if any, at which they are seen at different periods of the year. If the bodies were near enough to appear to change place or direction, when the Earth is at two different points in its orbit, the angle would afford data upon which to calculate the distance of these bodies. For instance, the diameter of the Earth's orbit is 195,000,000 of miles. This immense distance is used as the base line, and an angle subtended from the star to this line would give a basis for calculation. In the month of June, a star that passes through the zenith of any place in north latitude will, in December, pass south of the zenith; and a star that in December passes through the zenith, will, in June, pass to the north of it, if there be any sensible parallax. It is found that there is no parallax—that is, there is not the slightest variation in place in the fixed stars—the distance from the Earth being so great, that the diameter of the orbit (195,000,000 miles) is not sufficient to afford an angle, even of one second, from which to

calculate. A parallax of one second determines the distance to be 212,000 times greater than from the Earth to the Sun; so that if the angle subtended by the Earth's diameter, as seen from Sirius (considered the nearest of the fixed stars) was one second, its distance would not be less than 20,000,000,000,000 miles. It is the very least distance at which any of the fixed stars are placed from our globe; but as there is no sensible parallax, their distance must be much greater. Suppose a cannon-ball to fly 500 miles an hour, it would require 4,595,000 years to reach the nearest star, if we place it at the distance stated. Dr. Robert Hook, of Gresham college, was one of the first to propose the parallax of the stars, and the first to attempt its solution. Wollaston has calculated, as Sir J. Herschel says, on grounds open to no objection, that the light of Sirius, as received by us, is to that of the Sun as 1 to 20,000,000,000,000. The Sun, therefore, to be no brighter than Sirius, would require to be removed 141,400 times its actual distance. But the distance of Sirius is not so small as 200,000 times that of the Sun. Hence, the light of Sirius can not be so small as double that of the Sun; consequently the splendor of that star must be greater than that of two Suns.

The greater part of the fixed stars are collected into clusters, of which it requires a large magnifying power, with a great quantity of light, to be able to distinguish the stars separately. With a telescope of small magnifying power and light, these clusters appear like small whitish spots, and thence were called *nebulæ*. With a more powerful one they become clusters of stars. Their number increases. When one nebula is resolved others present themselves, until the observer perceives that all these appearances must arise from the confined situation in which he himself is placed. There are some nebulæ, however, that do not receive their light from stars. There is one in the middle of Orion's sword; it contains only seven stars, the other part being a bright spot upon a dark ground, and appears like an opening into brighter regions beyond. The number of stars visible to the naked eye at any one time is about 1,000. Every improvement of the telescope brings to notice stars unknown before, hence we may conclude that there are no limits to their number.

Dr. Herschel remarks that a nebula, whose light is milky, can not be at a less distance than 120,000,000,000,000,000 miles; so that a ray of light, which traverses the immense space between the Sun and Earth in 8 minutes 7½ seconds, would take 36,000 years at least to reach us from such a nebula. How sublime are the thoughts which the contemplation of such a stupendous machine excite in the mind.

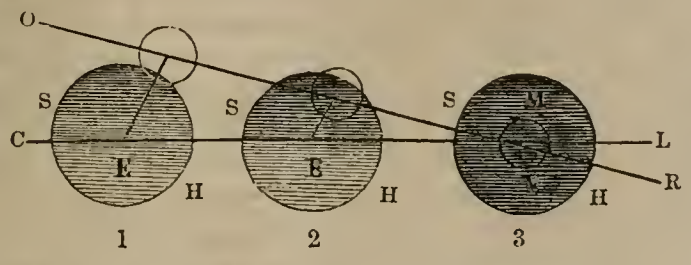
The Milky Way.—Sir William Herschel has made many observations on this region of the heavens. His instrument, or telescope, of twenty feet focal length, resolved all the whitish appearance into stars, 50,000 of which, large enough to be distinctly numbered, he calculated to cross the field of vision every hour. "In the most crowded parts of the Milky Way," he says, "I have had fields of view that contained no fewer than 588 stars, and these continued for many minutes, so that in one quarter of an hour's time there passed no less than 116,000 stars through the field of view of my telescope." At another time no less than 258,000 stars passed before his view in 41 minutes. He calculated that his telescope reached into space 497 times the distance of Sirius, so that a range of stars containing 497, each behind the other as far as from the Earth to Sirius, was before his view. It is impossible to conceive of the distance at which these bodies are placed from us, or of the magnitudes of bodies seen at such distances. In the attempt to grasp them the mind is bewildered and lost.

Comets.—Besides the primary planets, and their satellites already described, there are, belonging to our system, other bodies called Comets; these appear suddenly in the planetary regions, and again disappear. They move around the sun in elliptic orbits, but very eccentric, so that the comet is visible in a small part of it only. They are distinguished from other stars from their being attended with a long train of light, always opposite the sun, and which is of a fainter lustre the farther it is from the body. Hence comets are commonly divided into *bearded*, *tailed* and *hairy*. This division, however, relates not to different comets, but rather to the several appearances of the same comet. Thus, when the comet is westward of the Sun, and moves from it, it is said to be *bearded*, because the tail precedes it in the form of a beard; when the comet is west of the Sun, and approaching that luminary, it is said to be *tailed*, because the light or tail follows it. Again, when the comet is in opposition to the sun, the train is hidden behind the body of the comet, except a small portion which gives it a hairy appearance. There have been various theories concerning the nature of these bodies, which it would be out of place here to repeat.

The safest method of obtaining the periodic times of the comets is to compare the elements of all those which have been computed, and when any are found to agree *nearly*, it may be concluded that they are the elements of the same comet.

Eclipses.—An *eclipse of the Moon* is evidently caused by the interposition of some opaque body, which deprives it of the light of the Sun; and it is equally evident that this opaque body is the Earth, as an eclipse of the Moon never happens but at the full Moon, or when the Moon is in opposition, at which time the Earth is between her and the Sun, and projects behind it relatively to the Sun a conical shadow, the axis of which is the straight line which joins the centres of the Sun and the Earth, and terminates in a point where the apparent diameters of these two bodies are equal. Hence the cone of the terrestrial shadow is at least

three times the length of the Moon's distance from the Earth, and at the points, where it is crossed by the Moon, it is more than double her diameter. Hence there would be a lunar eclipse at every full Moon, if the plane of the Moon's orbit coincided with the plane of the ecliptic. But these planes are inclined to each other at an angle of 5 degrees 17 minutes nearly, and from this inclination the Moon in opposition is often elevated above or depressed below the Earth's shadow, and does not enter it, except when it is in or near her nodes. If the whole of the disk is immersed in the shadow, the eclipse is *total;* if only a portion of the disk be obscured it is *partial.*



The different eclipses of the Moon which may happen is thus explained by different authors. Let C L represent the plane of the ecliptic, O R the Moon's orbit cutting the ecliptic in the node N; and let S H represent a section of the Earth's shadow, at the distance of the Moon from the Earth, and M the Moon. Now, if the full Moon happens as in position 1, the Moon will touch the Earth's shadow without entering it, hence there will be no eclipse. In position 2 a part of the Moon will pass through the Earth's shadow, and there will be a partial eclipse. In position 3 the whole Moon passes through the Earth's shadow, and there is a total elipse. If the Moon's centre passes through the centre of the shadow, the eclipse is central and total. Hence it is evident, that whether an eclipse will happen at full Moon, or not, depends upon the Moon's distance from the node at that time.

An *eclipse of the Sun* is caused by the interposition of the Moon between the Sun and the Earth, or by the shadow of the Moon falling on the Earth; for it is only at the time of new Moon, or when the Moon is in conjunction, that a solar eclipse can happen. The different eclipses of the Sun may be explained by a diagram similar to the above.

There may be seven eclipses in a year, five of the Sun and two of the Moon, but there can be no more: there may be, however, only two eclipses in a year, both of the Sun; this is the least number that can happen.

GEOLOGY.

This modern, but most interesting and noble branch of scientific inquiry, aims to make us acquainted with the structure of the globe, the rocks of which it is composed, the order of their arrangement, their mineral and fossil treasures, their economical uses, and the vast and inconceivable forces which have been exerted in producing the present physical condition of the earth. These diversified investigations demand the most accurate and profound scientific attainments and skill—giving employment to the chemist, botanist, mineralogist, naturalist, anatomist, and historian—the philosopher who measures the mechanical powers, the meteorologist, who studies the various modifications which climatic influences produce on the earth's surface, and the astronomer, who weighs the spheres. There is scarcely a branch of knowledge which does not become tributary to the elucidation of geological facts, phenomena, or principles, so wide and diversified is the field.

Geology as a distinct system of scientific research and discussion, had no existence until toward the close of the last century. Although various writers had occasionally noted isolated facts or curious phenomena, it was reserved to the close of the eighteenth century to give this department of inquiry a positive place in the labor of scientific men. At that time, Werner, a professor in the school of Mines, at Freyburg, Saxony, uniting the ardor of enthusiasm with large attainments, went into the field, gathered up his facts, and founded thereon his doctrines of the earth. Taking the physical characteristics of his own country as a basis, he applied his reasoning to the surface of the whole earth. But the geological features of Saxony being different from those of other countries, the fame of the new professor and his doctrines attracted many observers and students to his school, and workers in this novel field began to multiply. Hutton, a Scotch philosopher, convinced of the utter inconsistency of the Wernerian, or, as it was called, the Neptunian theory, published his own, founded on facts chiefly observed among the volcanic and wild mountain scenery of Scotland and the neighboring islands. His theory, called the Plutonian or Volcanic, ascribed to igneous agency the phenomena of the earth, in opposition to the aqueous system of Werner. The discussion between the rival theorists and their disciples waxed warm, when, after some time, the importance of facts becoming constantly more obvious, the London Geological Society was formed in 1807, and the science has constantly progressed, until it has become, next to astronomy, the most splendid domain for research and discovery of the present age.

GEOLOGICAL DIAGRAM,

Representing the order in which the different strata lie upon each other; this order is never inverted, although many groups may be absent, and in some districts one of the lowest systems may be found immediately below the surface.

	ORGANIC REMAINS.	CHARACTER.	SYSTEMS.	USES IN THE ARTS.	LOCALITIES.
TERTIARY ROCKS.	Man.	Earth and Vegetable Deposite.	SURFACE SOIL	Various.	Delta of the Mississippi, &c.
	Colossal Animals	Sand, Gravel, Clay Drift, Erratic Blocks.	ALLUVIUM / DILUVIUM		General.
	Proportion of existing species 49 per cent. The Mastodon.	Crag, Marine Conglomerates.	PLIOCENE	Building, Paving, &c.	Apennines, Greece, Asia,
	Proportion of existing species 18 per cent. Fresh-Water Shells. Mari'e Mammalia	Limestones, Clay. Marine Marls, Crag Sandstone.	MIOCENE	Potteries, Agriculture, Building.	France, Switzerland, Spain. America.
	Proportion of existing species 3 per cent. Palœotherium.	Clay, Gypsum, Limestone.	EOCENE	Potteries, Models, Architecture.	London, Paris, Egypt, America.
UPPER. SECONDARY ROCKS.	Remains almost entirely Marine, Sponges, Corals, Molluscs, Crustacea, Reptiles.	Chalk with and without flints, Marls, Green sand,	CHALK	Building, and Road making, Agriculture, Manufactures.	England. United States.
	First Mammalia, Tortoises, Ammonites. Crustacea. Insects, Flying Lizards. The Iguanodon. Large Saurians. "The Age of Reptiles."	Clay, Sand, with iron ore, Argillaceous Sandstone. Limestone, Limestone with Shales, &c.	THE OOLITE SYSTEM / THE LIAS	Potteries, Iron Manufac. Paving, &c. Building, Potteries, Architecture, Building.	England, France, India.
	Saurians, The Chiotherium	Fine Sandstone, Magnesian Limestone.	NEW RED SANDSTONE	Architecture.	United States, England.
LOWER SECONDARY ROCKS.	Luxuriant Vegetation, Ferns, Palms, and other Gigantic Plants.	Coal-beds, and Sandstone, with Ironstone, Clay, and impure Limestone.	THE CARBONIFEROUS SYSTEM	Fuel, Gas, Building, Iron Manufac. Potteries, Various.	England, Nova Scotia, Pennsylvania,
	Marine Shells and Plants.	Millstone Grit, Sandstone.		Millstones, Paving, &c.	Virginia,
	Lily Encrinite, Immense Shell-Fish. Zoophytes.	Mountain Limestone, or Sandstone.		Building, and various.	Ohio, Illinois, &c.
TRANSITION.	Vertebrated Fish, Marine Plants, and Shells.	Sandstone. Conglomerates, Limestone.	OLD RED SANDSTONE	Building, Paving, Architecture.	Pennsylvania. Scotland, England.
	Corals, Shell-Fish, Trilobites, Seaweeds, Polypi, Worms, and species of Molusca.	Sandstone and Slaty Limestone. Slate rocks and Limestone. Sandstone.	SILURIAN SYSTEM	Building, and various. Roofing, Paving, Statuary. &c.	United States. Russia, England.
PRIMARY ROCKS.	NO ORGANIC REMAINS.	Mica slate, and Quartz rocks.	MICA SCHIST	Building, Ornaments.	New England.
		Gneiss, and Quartz rocks.	GNEISS	Various.	New York Island.
			GRANITE		Great Britain.

For the present brief notice we have presented a columnar section of the earth, which will give the reader a bird's-eye view of the present state of geological knowledge. Various systems of classification have been proposed, but that which has become most general among geologists is,—1, Primitive; 2, Transition; 3, Secondary; 4, Tertiary; 5, Diluvium; 6, Alluvium. These grand divisions are subdivided into many members of the series, which bear distinguishing features, whether of form, or the fossil remains imbedded in them.

Granite, which underlies the whole, probably in every part of the globe, at a greater or less depth from the surface, is a rock composed of two or three minerals, mica, feldspar, and quartz —sometimes without mica, or that mineral replaced with something else, hornblende for example. It is more or less crystalline, or close and fine-grained, and is a very common and durable rock, used for building. It occurs extensively protruded at the surface, or raised to tall and precipitous mountain peaks, whose bare and rugged sides resist the changes of centuries. These mountains of granite are seen protruded up through beds of other rocks, which have evidently been deposited and stratified in still water—a proof that these mountains have been raised by volcanic forces, after the consolidation of the latter, which are inclined in positions nearly or quite parallel to the face of the granite which supports them.

Trap Rocks form a class of unstratified rocks, often of very considerable extent, which are so called from a Swedish word *trappa*, a stair or step, on account of their terraced external form. Greenstone, basalt, phonolite, diorite, trachyte, &c., are specific names, used to distinguish the varieties. The Palisades, which form the precipitous cliffs of the Hudson river for many miles above New York city, are of the greenstone varieties. This rock runs south, through New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and into Virginia, where it bears in a southwesterly direction. The same rock skirts the east side of the Bay of Fundy, with high mural cliffs of the same description. The basalt is columnar, and presents some of the most romantic and singular pictures of scenery in the world. The north part of Ireland is particularly remarkable for the "Giant's Causeway," where the columns are composed of blocks having regular geometric forms. The columns vary in the number of their angles, being from three to twelve, but usually from five to seven. They are composed of blocks, or joints, which vary likewise in length and diameter, but ranging between six and sixteen inches. These joints are concave on the upper, and convex on the under surface, fitting into each other firmly. There are some grand examples of the columnar basalt in Oregon, along the Columbia river, and neighboring trappean districts.

Volcanic Rocks, such as lava, in its various forms, occur on or near the surface, in contact with active or extinct volcanoes, and are often an important index to the true character of a district where the fires have long ceased to burn.

Gneiss, the second in ascending order, is usually found over the granite; and having the same mineral constitution, it is believed to be the consolidated sediment of broken down and disintegrated fragments of granite, deposited in the sea which covered them. This rock is a hard, tough, and very durable material for buildings, and is the rock of New York island, through which the Harlem tunnel is cut, and which "crops out" at so many localities on the island. It is stratified, and oftentimes singularly contorted, as though by lateral and perpendicular pressure operating at the same time.

Mica Schist or Mica Slate differs from gneiss in the absence of feldspar, the greater predominance of mica, and the more perfect slaty structure. It passes gradually into gneiss. It is frequently found profusely studded with *garnet* and *staurotide*, two crystallized minerals which are freely distributed in the schist. This rock passes into clay slate and talcose slate.

Primary Limestone, Quartz Rock, Clay Slate, and Roofing and Drawing Slate, occur more or less associated with the primary rocks, the latter becoming more decided in their character as we approach the—

Silurian System of Murchison, or the Transition System of Werner. The latter name was given these rocks because in them occur the first evidences of organized bodies, such as seaweeds, corals, shell-fish, worms, &c. The Cambrian and Silurian are the names given to the two great divisions of this vast formation by Mr. Murchison. They are the names of two ancient districts in Wales, inhabited by the Cambrians and Silures. The lower is slate and conglomerate, several thousand feet thick; a dark limestone, containing corals, shells, fishes; fine grained, dark slates, and conglomerates, with marine plants, shells, and zoophytes. The lower Silurian, which overlies (in geological order) the last-named rock, comprises hard, sandy flagstones, with alternating beds of limestone, fine green fossiliferous sandstone, shelly limestone, containing remains of shells, trilobite, &c. The upper Silurian is composed of slates, limestones, and sandstones, in which the organic remains are numerous, and in the upper members of which fishes become abundant. These rocks are extended on a more magnificent area in this country than in Wales. In the western part of New York they are finely developed, and they cover an area of 10,000 square miles in the valley of the Ohio.

The Old Red Sandstone, occurring over the Silurian, is also called the Devonian System, being a characteristic feature in the geology of Devonshire and Hertfordshire, England. In Scotland it has been very fully investigated, and its fossils lucidly and beautifully described. It is called *old* to distinguish it from the *new*, which overlies the Carboniferous system.

Carboniferous or Great Coal Formation. This system consists of a series of fossiliferous limestones, alternating, with dark bituminous shales, containing beds of coal. The lower division includes the coal measures, the middle division includes the millstone grit, and the upper the mountain limestone. The most remarkable feature of this formation is the vast accumulation of fossil plants, which have been deposited in strata of various thicknesses, alternating with the sandstone and shale, and which has become so essential, in the progress of civilization, as an article of fuel. These vast beds of mineral coal are the remains of a vegetation, of which our present earth scarcely affords a type—its richness, and the majestic size of its plants, affording the evidences of a growth which the tropics now do not in any manner equal. Coal occurs in England, Nova Scotia, Pennsylvania, Virginia, the Valley of the Mississippi, Melville Island, Australia, and China. It is perhaps nowhere more splendidly developed than in the vicinity of Pottsville, Pa., where it is superficially exposed in a vein sixty feet thick, and along the Monongahela river, where the banks are exposed for miles, and exhibit thick strata of this valuable mineral.

Above the carboniferous there is a system called the Permian, by Mr. Murchison, which is best exhibited in Permia, a district in Russia, and alternates magnesian limestone with red marl, gypsum, conglomerate marl, beds with shelly limestone, and strata of

New Red Sandstone, which is the lower member of the *secondary rocks*, if we give a distinct rank to the carboniferous system. Some authors reject the term "*transition*," and include all down to the primary stratified rocks under the general term of "secondary." Passing upward we enter the wide domain of animated life, where the reptilia appear, in multiplied and astonishing forms and proportions. The Secondary period is called the Age of Reptiles, the Lias, the Oolite, the Wealden, and the Chalk, being the principal divisions of this important epoch. These rocks, with their fossils are best exhibited in England, where they have been thoroughly examined, and the gigantic animals almost reproduced by scientific skill. Immense bird tracks are frequent in the New Red of the Connecticut valley.

The Eocene, Meiocene, Older and Newer Pleiocene, comprise the *tertiary rocks*. The Meiocene is so called from εος, the *dawn;* and καινος, *recent*, signifying the dawn of the present period. About three per cent. of its fossils belong to existing species. The Meiocene, so called from μειον, *less*, and καινος, *recent:* about 18 per cent. are of existing species. The Pleiocene, from πλειον, *more*, and καινος, *recent*, about 49 per cent. belonging to existing species. The Newer Pleiocene is also called Pleistocene, from πλειστος, *most*, and καινος, *recent*, 95 per cent. of fossils being of the present species. London is situated on what is called the London Basin by geologists, and which affords a fine example of the Eocene strata. In it occurs fine specimens of amber, often containing insects, or parts of insects, showing that when they were imprisoned the mineral was in a liquid state, and open to the atmosphere. The fossils of the *tertiary* are numerous and interesting; many of them of peculiar and beautiful forms. In the upper members of the series occur animals of astonishing size, such as the Megatherium, the Dinotherium, the Mylodon, and others.

Rocks of this period occur in France, Germany, Spain, Italy, Greece, and many localities in the Old World; and in America, the seaboard from the southern part of New Jersey, along the southern states through Alabama, Mississippi, and on the gulf of Mexico, as well as in other places in the West Indies and South America, afford fine exhibitions of the tertiary and its fossils.

The Diluvial or Fourth Period brings us to an epoch contemporaneous with the existence of Man. The vast accumulations of soil, transported rocks, boulders, sand, &c., showing the operation of floods, submergence, elevations, the actions of icebergs, and other agents, are almost universally seen. In many localities, as in America, on both sides of the continent, in the Mississippi valley, and in Siberia, remains of mammoths, a race now extinct, are numerous. Even the flesh, and parts of the skin, with three different kinds of hair or wool upon it, belonging to a mammoth which had thawed out of its frozen lodging in an icecliff, on the northern shore of Siberia, have been found. The wolves had feasted on his flesh, and left the skeleton on the shore, with part of the skin.

Many caves, containing skeletons of bears, apes, tigers, hyenas, wolves, and other animals, have been explored. These caves, and the features of the country, show that at a period not very remote these places had been exposed to at least occasional floods, and the animals sought common shelter in the hour of danger, and found a common death.

Alluvium is the deposite which forms from the sediment carried down by rivers. Such are the Nile, Ganges, Mississippi, and others where great deltas are formed, and on many other rivers which gradually raise their beds by the deposition, until they are raised to a level sometimes above that of the surrounding country.

This brief explanation of the engraving is but an index to the rich and varied field of discovery open before the inquirer. Our continent affords a yet untrodden domain for the foot of the geologist and naturalist. What the developments of science are to be we can hardly tell: but that they are worthy of self-denying and noble effort, the future will abundantly demonstrate.

THE END.

ESQUIMAUX OTO INDIAN SUKI INDIAN COPPER INDIAN PATAGONIAN.

KAMTSCHATKAN SWARTHY CALMUC JAPANESE TARTAR CHINESE

MODERN OTTOMAN ANGLO-SAXON FINN or LAPLANDER SANDWICH ISLANDER

BUSHMAN CAFFRE ABYSSINIAN NEGRO. MOZAMBIQUE NEGRO

KALICOLAN NEW ZEALANDER. PAPUAN S AUSTRALIAN TASMANIAN

PRINCIPAL VARIETIES OF THE HUMAN RACE.

NATIVE OF CHILE NATIVE OF CHILE

THE WORLD

SAMOIEDA OARROW

FEMALE COSTUMES OF DIFFERENT PARTS OF THE WORLD.

NATIONS OF EUROPE — ASIA. — AFRICA. — NORTH AMERICA. — SOUTH AMERICA. — OCEANICA.

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